

LEND A HAND.

A RECORD OF PROGRESS.

VOL. XVII.

SEPTEMBER, 1896.

No. 3.

WHAT I said in this place a month ago on the courses of study pursued in the public schools has challenged some criticism, and needs, perhaps, some additional illustration.

Of course, one would say, if anything could be taken for granted, different schools have different objects. It is, however, necessary to say this whenever one discusses this subject, because the business of the average critic compels him to say, what people who are not critics understand, that the words that we use in speaking of a school of literature or a school of art, are not to be applied to the needs or the machinery of the "School of the soldier," or a school for teaching flute-players.

In what the law creates, as a public school for one-fifth of the people living in a state, certain principles and ideals are to be preserved, which need not be taken into account in a school of telegraphy or a school for the piano or a school of short-hand.

It is necessary to say this, because, however commonplace, even fatuous the remark, its truth is overlooked in the general discussion.

STARTING with this obvious remark, what seems to be the central truth in this regard, not for the school for penmanship or the school for fencing, but for the public of America, is this, that we are trying to make good, strong, effective men and women out of those who come to the school weak and ineffective boys and girls—whose characters are not yet formed.

That is to say—we are not only to teach facts to these children, but we are so to train the children that they shall be able for themselves to learn facts, and that, as men and women, they shall be able to use the information which, from whatever source, they have derived.

We are to educate them as well as to instruct them. Also, in any comparison between the two functions, Education is to rank higher than Instruction. And Instruction ought always to be so conveyed as, in the conveying, to promote Education.

In Mr. Lowell's quarter-millennium address, at the two hundred and fiftieth Commencement of Harvard College, he made one remark which will be recollected, probably, longer than anything else in the oration.

"Harvard has never distinguished herself by producing a great educator, for we imported Agassiz." It was true at that time that in the long line of presidents who had won the star on the college catalogue, not one deserved the fame as an educator which belonged to the Swiss naturalist. Webber, Wadsworth, Holyoke, Kirkland,—there was not one of them of whom it could fairly be said that he had advanced by a generation the public education of the community in which he lived, as Agassiz did!

It is worth remark that in Dr. Gilman's valuable paper on the College and the University, he does not include this business of education, distinct from the pursuit of truth, as being one of the functions of the university of the future. He says in his condensed statement of what we may expect from the university, first "that it must be above all things a seat of learning where the spirit of inquiry and investiga-

tion is perpetually manifested." Then it must be a shrine to which the outside world will resort for instruction and guidance; and more, it must be a place from which are sent forth important contributions to science. "Here every form of scientific investigation should be promoted. Researches too costly for ordinary purses should be prosecuted at the expense of the general chest. Expeditions for investigation should be sent forth from time to time. Instruments of the most improved form should be devised, procured, and renewed. Researches in literature, philosophy, history, politics, and all the problems of modern society should be encouraged. All this should be done in an atmosphere of repose and leisure."

Between the lines, as we read this agreeable account of the university of the next century, with its "atmosphere of repose and leisure," we understand, "of course," that the men who are learning so much are teaching what they learn. More than this, they are stimulating the younger learners by the great idealisms and noble enthusiasms, without which no one learns anything to any purpose. These masters of science and the aids of learning are worthless, indeed, unless in the facts which they observe and discover, they are able to reveal to those who study under them the eternal truths of life, and to send them out with their commission to the waiting world.

Dr. Gilman would say, that in a republic, where every man must bear his part, the proclamation of truth is, of course, the first duty of every citizen. He would say it need not be specified. He would say that a professor of physiology who could warn young men of the dangers of alcohol, as no man but an expert can do, would, "of native impulse," rush forward as a prophet to the people around, to warn, encourage, and advise as to the dangers of intemperance and as to its cure.

He would say that the professor of economics who, in the history of the past, has perfect illustrations of the dangers of the diluted currency, would, in any great crisis, be the

central man who would best lead the wavering voter in his duty to his country and to the future.

He would say that every professor in the laboratory, in the library, in the lecture room, in the seminary, or in the relaxation of private life, would be seeking to quicken and inspire the life of those around him, so that these young people should go out from the college, fanatics for the uplifting of the people. He would say that to this prime and central passion of the teacher, even the pursuit of truth, in some new form of the end of the century, comes second.

But alas! many of the people about whom he is writing do not say such things. The pursuit of original science seems to them the first necessity, the teaching of certain new facts in it seems to them the second, and the training of men and women, the evolution of character from the primordial protoplasms of boyish and girlish life, suggests itself only as the third.

That is to say, the value of instruction seems greater to the average teacher than that of education. But education is the greatest duty and privilege of all. And so it appears to an educator.

EDWARD E. HALE.

PURIFICATION OF PUBLIC WATER SUPPLIES.*

BY GEORGE H. ROHE, M. D.

The most vitally important sanitary problem confronting American municipalities at the present day is, unquestionably, the supply of pure water for drinking and other domestic purposes. The wide-spread prevalence of typhoid fever may be practically looked upon as a measure of the pollution of the drinking water. Depending as this disease is almost entirely upon an infected water supply, the im-

* An address delivered at the Forty-seventh Annual Meeting of the American Medical Association at Atlanta, Ga., May, 1896

portance of having the latter of a pure quality is self-evident. In 1894, twenty-five of the principal cities of the United States had an average typhoid mortality of 39.6 per hundred thousand of population. Those cities which had the largest mortality from this disease were supplied by a highly suspicious quality of drinking water.

It will be hardly necessary at the present day to insist upon the etiologic relation of infected water to typhoid fever. The numerous epidemics in this country and abroad, which have been studied with so much care by eminent sanitarians, have demonstrated this relation. While cases doubtless occur in which the disease cannot be traced to the water supply, these constitute the vanishing minority, the overwhelming majority being unquestionably due to infected water.

In epidemics of cholera a similar relation exists between the outbreaks and extension of the disease to an infected water supply. Aside, however, from the production of these specific diseases, pure water, or water free from all sorts of uncleanness, is demanded by the "sanitary conscience" of the public.

These premises being conceded, the great importance of securing a supply of drinking water free from contamination becomes apparent.

In sparsely settled districts, or where a supply of unpolluted water can be brought from a distance to a large community, it will probably be better to secure such a pure supply rather than purify a source of supply which has been polluted; but in the majority of instances, particularly in the eastern and central sections of this country, the procurement of such an unpolluted supply is practically barred by financial considerations. We are therefore reduced to one of two alternatives—either to limit as much as possible, or altogether prevent, which is practically impossible, the access of impurities (notably of sewage or excremental matter) to the sources of supply; or else to resort to some method of purification of the water after it has become polluted.

The city of New York has recently chosen the first alternative mentioned, by the purchase of ground immediately bordering upon the stream furnishing the drinking water to that metropolis. By the removal of sources of pollution from the area of land so acquired, the endeavor has been made to secure a pure drinking water.

I have not at hand the figures, showing the amount of money expended in order to accomplish this purpose, but the sum must have been very large. In Chicago, the extraordinary outbreak of typhoid fever from 1889 to 1893 led to the extension of the in-take pipes in Lake Michigan to a distance of four miles from the shore, and the consequent diminution of the sewage contamination has reduced the typhoid mortality from 159.7 per hundred thousand in 1891 to 31.4 per hundred thousand in 1894.

In most instances, however, where large communities are supplied with polluted water, the changing of the source of supply is impracticable. A recent inquiry by a commission of engineers upon providing a new supply of water for the city of Cincinnati, has taken into consideration a scheme for drawing the supply from the Cumberland Mountains, a distance of 130 miles away. The estimated cost of this work was \$27,000,000. Another scheme considered by the same commission was to draw the supply from Lake Erie, 250 miles distant, at an estimated cost of over \$40,000,000. Chicago expended \$3,500,000 for the construction of the tunnel into the lake at its very doors.

These figures will probably be sufficient to show the impracticability, from a financial standpoint, of abandoning a source of water supply that may be polluted, now in use by any community, and going a great distance in search of a pure water supply. Fortunately there is at our hand, however, a means by which a source of supply once polluted can be again rendered pure; this is *filtration*.

Formerly, filtration simply meant straining out from water all gross impurities, and changing a dirty and muddy water into a clear and limpid fluid. It did not contemplate the

changing of organic compounds into inorganic compounds, or the removal from the water of minute organisms, which we have learned to regard as causes of specific diseases. Our notions of what constitutes purification of water have considerably changed. We now know that water may be perfectly clear and limpid, and yet be extremely impure by reason of its content of impure organic matter or dangerous microorganisms. The results obtained by the filtration of sewage, in which a highly impure liquid, full of organic matter and teeming with microorganisms of various kinds, is rendered clear, limpid, almost entirely free from organisms and organic matter, have taught us how to purify a polluted water, which in many instances is simply a highly diluted sewage.

This method of speaking of polluted water supply is not an exaggeration, when we study the published reports of the analyses of the water formerly used by the city of Lawrence, in Massachusetts, and now used by Jersey City and other larger and smaller communities in this country.

A great impetus to filtration was given by the experiments conducted under the auspices of the Massachusetts State Board of Health at Lawrence in that state, and carried out so thoroughly by Mr. Hiram F. Mills and Mr. Allen Hazen. These experiments, carried on with painstaking care for a number of years, prove conclusively that water, no matter how polluted, can be rendered pure by simply filtering the same through sand filters, provided certain cautions were observed regarding the construction of the filters, the rate of filtration, and other conditions varying with the character of the water to be purified.

For many years, filtration through sand has been used by European municipalities to secure purification of water. In London most of the drinking water has been filtered for upward of forty years. The filter beds of Berlin cover an area of more than thirty acres. In many of the European continental cities the drinking water is subjected to filtration. The construction and practical management of filters have

been investigated with great care. Comparative studies of the efficiency of sand filters, and of various processes of so-called "mechanical filtration," have been made recently in Providence, R. I., and at Lawrence, Mass. While the results obtained by the different investigators have not been in entire agreement, the prevailing opinion of sanitarians and engineers is that sand filtration, where it can be adopted, gives the best results in purification, at the lowest cost of construction and maintenance.

Koch has given the following clear explanation of the process of sand filtration :

"The problem of filtration is to purify water from the matter held in suspension. Matter which has been dissolved goes through the filter with hardly any or with no perceptible change. As the chemie investigation of water has chiefly to deal with inquiry into the constituents which have been dissolved, it cannot aid in studying the processes of filtration. But in earlier days one was so much accustomed to judge the character of water according to its chemie characteristics that, in complete ignorance of what took place in the process of filtration, one attempted to test and regulate the process chemically. Naturally, no useful result ever came of this. The specialists in filtration had found this out even in early times, and had attempted to obtain aid in some other way. They tested the water in glass or metal cylinders, the so-called 'water-tests,' as to its transparency before and after filtration, and according to the result they judged of the value of the sand filters. By this simple means they succeeded in discovering the most important conditions for a sufficient purification of water from its suspended constituents. From this it appeared that the real filtration does not take place in the sand, but that, by deposit from the still unpurified water, a layer of mud is formed on the top of the sand, and that this layer of mud which is over the sand, is the real filter which retains the suspended constituents from the water. In the process of filtration the important point is first that a proper layer of

slime should be formed, and that it should not be disturbed during the process of filtration, and that when by further continuous deposit it becomes too thick and therefore too impermeable to water, it should be removed. According to all appearance, different natural waters are capable of producing the filtering mud layer in very different degrees, according to the amount of mineral and vegetable matter held in suspension. Some river waters, which are especially rich in clayey constituents, can deposit a good filtering mud layer in eight or ten hours. Other kinds of water rendered more turbid by vegetable matter require a longer time, at least twenty-four hours, to form the deposit. At certain periods of the year, especially at the time of the so-called 'water-bloom,' owing to the appearance of innumerable microscopic algae, the vegetable constituents suspended in the water are increased to an extraordinary extent, and are of a particularly slimy character, and form therefore a layer which in a few days becomes nearly impermeable to water and must be removed. From these brief remarks it will appear that in sand filtration we are not dealing with so simple a matter as is often supposed. It has also been discovered that in the gradual wearing out of the sand layer it should never be allowed to get below a certain thickness, about 30 cm., and that a certain speed, about 100 mm. in the hour, must be allowed for the movement of the water through the sand layer to obtain the most perfect purification."

Koch further states that a daily or tri-weekly bacteriologic examination of the filtered water must be made in order to test the performance of the filter. "If a filter works satisfactorily in every respect, experience shows that there will be found less than one hundred germs capable of development in one cubic centimeter of water; and this is irrespective of the number of bacteria contained in the water before filtration." The slightest changes in the rapidity of filtration, or the disturbance of the filter bed, become manifest on bacteriologic examination.

The cholera epidemic in Hamburg in 1892 furnished an object lesson of great value. Hamburg and Altona both draw their water supply from the river Elbe. In Hamburg, in 1892, the water was furnished directly to consumers without filtration; in Altona, on the other hand, the water had been for a number of years filtered. The Hamburg supply was drawn from the river at a point where there was comparatively little pollution, but the Altona supply was drawn from the Elbe immediately after the stream had received the sewage of the entire population of Hamburg, numbering nearly 800,000. As a matter of fact, cholera bacteria were discovered in the Elbe water below the main outlet of the Hamburg sewers. There was every reason to expect, therefore, that the cholera would have been more virulent in Altona than in Hamburg; but the contrary was the case.

In Hamburg about 21,000 persons were attacked by cholera, of whom over 11,000 died during the epidemic. In Altona, on the other hand, there were not over 500 cases—400 of which were shown to have been importations from Hamburg, thus leaving the small number of 100 cases traceable to infection in Altona. Koch, who made a very careful inquiry into the circumstances of the outbreak at Hamburg, came to the conclusion that the comparative immunity of Altona was due to the filtration of its water supply.

Returning to the consideration of typhoid fever, we have in the United States an example of the limitations of this disease, produced by the purification of the drinking water by means of filtration. For a number of years the city of Lawrence, in Massachusetts, had suffered from typhoid fever to an unusual degree. For the six years from 1887 to 1892, the typhoid deaths in that city averaged 50 annually, a proportion of 119 per 100,000 of population. In 1893, the drinking water, drawn from the Merrimac river, was subjected to filtration, and at once the typhoid death rate began to fall. In 1895, two years after the filtered water had been in general use in the city, the number of deaths had fallen to sixteen, of which nine occurred among "oper-

atives working in certain mills where unfiltered water was used for drinking by the operatives, notwithstanding the prohibition of such use, because the river water was more accessible than the city water." (Quoted from a paper by Mr. Allen Hazen in the *Health Magazine* for March, 1896.) In two cases the disease was believed to have been imported, and in five the origin was not accounted for.

The conditions, under which filtration takes place, have been studied particularly in the experiments made at Lawrence, above referred to. Without going further into the details of the construction of filters, two processes must be kept in view—one, the removal or straining out of the bacteria, always present in water; and the other, the oxidation of organic matter, and its conversion into inorganic compounds. These imply that the materials of which the filter is constructed shall be sufficiently fine to hold back all suspended matters, and that a sufficient supply of oxygen shall always be present in order to allow the oxidizing process to go on. In most natural waters there is a sufficiently large quantity of free oxygen to allow the oxidizing processes to go on continually, but in cases where the water is highly polluted, it is necessary to permit access of extra quantities of oxygen, in order that all the organic matter may be oxidized. This may be accomplished, either by aeration of the water before filtration, or by carrying on the filtration intermittently, allowing the air to penetrate the interspaces in the filter before the water is again turned on the filter. This is in effect what is done in the intermittent filtration or the broad irrigation of sewage.

In the experiments at Lawrence, it was found that an average of 98.54 per cent. of the bacteria found in the river water were removed by filtration; under favorable conditions, *i. e.*, with filters of the best construction, and a moderate rate of flow—less than 1 per cent. of bacteria remained in the water after it had passed through the filter.

Within the last two years an extended series of experiments upon filtration with so-called "mechanical filters,"

were made in Providence, R. I., with the view of adopting a system of filtration combining efficiency with economy. The apparatus most thoroughly tested is known as the "Morrison filter," and its construction is described as follows :

"The filter bed of crushed quartz was two feet, ten inches in depth, supported upon a base of iron with circular perforations of about four inches in size, which were covered with screens. The crushed quartz used was the effective size of 0.59 millimeters. The filter was washed by a reversed current, which caused the quartz to boil. The agitation and friction of the particles were increased by means of a rake with long teeth, which revolved about a central column in the filter; the rake penetrating the bed by a screw motion from top to bottom." One-half grain of basic sulphate of alumina was used to the gallon of water filtered, in order to produce a film upon the surface of the filter. This constitutes the real filtering layer, corresponding to the mud layer in the natural or sand filter.

The results obtained in these experiments showed that with careful management, from 92 to 99 per cent. of the bacteria contained in the water could be removed by mechanical filters. Further investigation demonstrated, however, that the installation and management of these filters would be more expensive than sand filtration, with no increase in efficiency.

On the whole, it is probable that sand filtration, having been thoroughly tested both by experiment and practical experience, must be regarded as the most efficient method of purifying a polluted water supply; and that, when carefully and intelligently managed, it can be depended upon for purification has been shown in the experience of Altona and Lawrence.

COUNTY CARE OF THE INSANE UNDER STATE SUPERVISION.*

BY JAMES E. HEG.

Certain facts have been established beyond a doubt in what is known as the "Wisconsin system," or county care of the insane under state supervision. They rest upon no hypothesis nor course of reasoning. They have gone into history, and no attempt is made by any fair-minded or well-informed man to contradict or question them even. It is upon these that we must rely, rather than suppositions, or theories, or wishes and the like. No clever hypotheses, no imposing array of venerable opinions, no plausibly constructed arguments, no abstruse scientific deductions may serve as a substitute for actual knowledge.

Disclaiming any professional knowledge in the care of the insane, and therefore unable to present plausible arguments or dogmatic theories on the subject, it will be all the more necessary for me to confine my statements entirely to facts that I know and about things I have seen. I shall speak only of the county care of the insane as understood in Wisconsin. Whether its success in Wisconsin is due to special laws or other causes not found elsewhere, I do not feel qualified to say, but its success has been demonstrated by fifteen years, and the system is now a permanent institution of the state, which few would want to change.

The most humane and generous care of the insane, compatible with that economy rightly due to the tax-payers, is the problem vexing the philanthropic mind nearly everywhere to-day, and if the county care as exemplified in the

* A paper read at the National Conference of Charities and Corrections by James E. Heg, member of Wisconsin State Board of Control.

Wisconsin system is not a complete solution of the question, it comes nearer to it than any plan yet devised and proved.

This system rests upon two principles, Economy and Humanity, the true basic principles for the care of all our defective, delinquent, and dependent classes. The present Wisconsin method of managing the insane was devised sixteen years ago by the State Board of Charities, now called Board of Control. In 1880 that board found in jails and poorhouses scattered throughout the state 533 insane, crowded out of the hospitals, though the large northern hospital had been built only six years previously. The state hospitals were so overfilled that a new case could be received only by sending away an old one. Reports from many states show that the same condition of affairs exists to-day in nearly every state in the Union. Insanity increases much more rapidly than the ability of the people to pay for the erection of the expensive and pretentious palaces in which from 500 to 2,700 unfortunates can be herded, and which cost from \$1,000 to \$2,500 per capita for the accommodations provided. Legislatures generally find so many needed avenues for the people's hard-earned money that they cannot be blamed for not realizing as acutely as those who have immediate care of the insane, the great increase of people with minds diseased. In every state is heard the urgent cry for more hospital capacity, but alas, in how few of them is the cry heeded and relief given!

In the report of the Indiana conference of charities for 1895, the statement is made by Dr. S. E. Smith, in an argument for the state care of the insane, that there are about 700 insane in that state "worthy of hospital care and treatment, yet denied this aid because the state has not made its accommodations keep pace with the needs." In a recent report of the Ohio board of charities, the statement is made that in November, 1895, there were 1,422 insane in the county infirmaries or poor-houses of Ohio, the condition of whom was reported as truly pitiable. From a late report

from New Jersey, made by the able secretary of the state board, Mrs. Williamson, we notice that 189 insane are kept in almshouses, and a loud call for a reform in this line is made. The report of nearly every state we have been able to examine is of similar character, or even worse, and this shows that state care of the insane does not mean the care of *all* the insane.

The condition of the 533 insane found in jails and poor-houses by the old State Board of Charities in 1880, was deplorable in the extreme. But the saddening record of humanity, neglect, and brutality was in no wise different from that which could be told by any of you who are at all familiar with the care of the insane crowded out of the hospitals and asylums into jails and poor-houses. Raving maniacs were found in cells of jails where they had spent months, women were found literally in pens with no beds but loose straw, others were in cellars and basement cells, or chained to staples in the walls. The record is indeed sickening, but is it worse than can be seen even now in many states where state care of the insane is the policy?

The original intention of the Board of Charities was to provide for the 533 only, or rather to provide for the surplus insane who could not be cared for in the state hospitals. But the idea soon developed into the present system, which fifteen years has demonstrated to be eminently satisfactory. To-day Wisconsin has over 4,000 insane, and not one of them is in a poor-house or jail. And what is more, every insane person in the state is cared for. Can any other state say as much?

The law under which the Wisconsin county asylums for the chronic insane were organized was passed in 1881, and was entitled:

“An act to provide for the *humane* care of the chronic insane, not otherwise provided for.”

It, in brief, provided that such counties as provide for their own chronic insane, *under such rules as the State Board of Charities should prescribe*, on the properly veri-

fied certificates of said board to the secretary of state, should receive the sum of \$1.50 per week for each person so cared for.

The chronic insane only are provided for in these county asylums, while the hospitals are kept for the acute cases entirely. About 2,700 chronic insane are now being cared for in the 23 county asylums, and fully as well cared for as in any state institution in the country. To have cared for these by the state would have required buildings that would have cost two million dollars. To have obtained that immense sum from the legislature would have been almost impossible, and, if possible, would have entailed heavy burdens on the people.

For each person cared for in our state hospitals the county to which he belongs pays one dollar and fifty cents and his clothing bill to the state. For each inmate of a county asylum, the state pays the county \$1.50. It will thus be seen that a county caring for its own insane really gets \$3.25 a week in what it saves and what it receives. Three dollars and twenty-five cents a week is about as low as most state institutions in the country are able to care for their chronic insane. Very few, counting salaries, clothing, subsistence, fuel and repairs are as low even as this. The average weekly cost of keeping the insane in the county asylums, counting everything, is about \$1.75, which makes an average gain of \$1.50 per week for each inmate. Out of this gain, the counties that have had asylums ten or twelve years have paid for their entire permanent investment in land, buildings, improvements, and repairs. In other words, the people have paid no more than they otherwise would have had to pay for the care of these insane in state institutions, yet have been able to save enough in twelve years to pay for their entire investment in handsome buildings, large farms, barns, and the like. As a matter of economy, could any better showing be made than this?

But some one says, "You must starve your insane to be able to make the weekly average as low as \$1.75." By no

means. I want to say right here that I have visited nearly all of these asylums at meal time, and I believe that the inmates are fully as well fed, if indeed not much better fed, as in any state asylum for chronics in the country. I have with me statements showing the dietary established in each county institution, which I shall be glad to have any one examine. I have verified the statements made in these papers and know that the facts are as represented.

Nearly all of the 23 asylums have a common dining room, with seating capacity for all the inmates. With the kitchen adjoining, the food is served warm and in right condition. The tables of the dining room are covered with cloth and in season are graced with flowers. The walls have pictures, and, in general, the room is the cheerful and pleasant apartment that it is in the ordinary home. Waiter girls, neatly attired, attend to the wants of the patients and see that every one has all he wants. Few homes have a more ample variety, more abundant supply and better cooked meals than one finds always in these county asylums.

Indeed, the inmates live fully as well as the average well-to-do American citizen, farmer or mechanic.

How is it that this can be done for \$1.75 per week or less?

In the state hospitals, the cost per patient for wages and salaries is from \$75 to \$100 per year, while in the county asylums, with no expensive corps of officers, the average cost is about \$26.50 per capita.

In the state hospitals, for subsistence the expense is about \$65, while in the county asylums, the inmates being nearly all employed in some productive work, raising to a great extent the food consumed, the expense is but a trifle over \$27 a year for each inmate.

In some of the county asylums the inmates make all of the clothing, shoes, etc., used, and in all of them the women's clothing is made.

The county asylum farms contain from 80 to 500 acres of choice land. Such of the inmates as are able and willing to work—and a large percentage are both—help to raise the

greater amount of the food consumed, and this necessarily reduces the cost of the subsistence. And in these farms lies the secret of the beneficial results that are manifested from the county asylums. Occupation is found if possible for every inmate not entirely bed-ridden, with the result that the demented are roused from their stupor, the violent become calm and quiet, the filthy become cleanly, and the physical condition of a large proportion is *decidedly* improved.

In nearly all of these asylums are hospital rooms for the sick, but there are so few at any one time that are ill that I have never yet seen any of these hospitals in use as such. A small bedroom off some ward is all that is necessary, and is better when one is sick, because more homelike and cheerful than the larger hospital apartment.

But it is not alone that the system is so economical that it is so well liked, but because it is the most humane plan yet devised, and has accomplished results not dreamed of by the originators. In the first place, it permits the energies of the larger state hospitals to be devoted entirely to the cure of the curable, a consideration that must not be ignored. These hospitals are not weighed down with the care of a large number of unimprovable cases, but are purely and wholly hospitals for the new cases of insanity in the fullest sense of the word.

Speaking of the condition in the Indiana state-care institutions, Dr. Smith said in his paper before referred to: "The overcrowded wards prevent early and prompt admission of new cases. This delay in the treatment of the acutely insane, under the most favorable surroundings, is harmful and diminishes the chances of safe recovery, will be denied by no one. Our first duty is to the curable insane, and nothing should be omitted looking to a restoration to health and useful citizenship."

On that principle we are working in Wisconsin. In the work that is being done in its state hospitals, Wisconsin takes great pride. We invite comparison with that wrought

in any other state for the scientific and progressive interest and investigation in the problems of practical psychiatry and in results upon the mind diseased.

The insane are committed first to the hospitals. So long as there is any hope that hospital treatment can benefit either the mind or the body of the patient, he is kept at the hospital, but when it is felt that there is no hope for his recovery under existing conditions, the patient is transferred to the county asylum nearest to his home and relatives. The superintendent of the hospital and the physician immediately in charge certify to the Board of Control that the patient is eligible and suitable for transfer as being probably incurable. The Board of Control then issues orders for his transfer. Notice of the transfer is sent by the superintendent of the hospital to the relatives of the patient, who are free to visit him at the asylum at nearly all times. One of the real benefits of the system is that it educates the masses in the care of the insane, in that it brings this unfortunate class closer to the people. All of these asylums have a large number of visitors, some having as high as 100 a day, at times. All of them have been obliged, in self-defence, to forbid Sunday visits, but at other times there are few days that do not bring some friends and relatives to the inmates. This constant influx of visitors prevents the abuse or neglect of inmates, even if there was a disposition to that effect.

We hear much from the state-care advocates about the proverbial stinginess of the county boards in making appropriations for these asylums. But as a matter of fact there has been no cause for complaint in Wisconsin.

The State Board of Control is the only medium through which a county can get any money from the state treasury, and, if this Board does its duty, there will be no trouble with the county authorities.

The State Board of Control is compelled by law to visit and inspect these asylums at least once every 90 days. Frequent visits are made without notice and at all times of

the day. If the county authorities fail to properly care for the insane in any county asylum, the State Board can, and undoubtedly would, immediately transfer the insane in that asylum to some other institution, or it would withhold the payment of state money to the asylum until everything was arranged to the satisfaction of the Board. The superintendents of these asylums are very proud each of his own particular institution, and all seem to be deeply in love with their work. They consult the State Board often, and I have never found one who was not glad to receive official visits of inspection.

As a rule, the counties have been liberal with their appropriations for all purposes, and have often given more money than is needed. The State Board and the local boards have worked in the greatest harmony, and suggestions of the State Board are acted on with cheerfulness and alacrity. The local trustees are in nearly every instance the most prominent men in the county. They have the respect of their fellow-citizens to a marked degree, and all of them take special interest in the work of these asylums. They know every inmate and the circumstances of each case. Their hearts are in the work, and they give valuable and splendid service to the cause of humanity.

There is considerable strife among the counties as to which shall build the next asylum needed, and applications are before the Board at all times. The Board first grants permission to some county to build an asylum, limiting the capacity of the same, generally to 100 or 125. Then all plans for buildings are submitted to the Board for approval, and changes are made in accordance with the suggestions of the Board. Some of the newer asylums are most beautiful structures, finished in hard woods, with an abundant supply of water, lighted by electricity and heated by steam. It has often been noticed, however, that the nearer to his normal condition the patient gets, the better is the result. The majority of the inmates come from very poor homes, and to keep them in the palaces built for the insane in many of the

states does not benefit the patients unaccustomed to such splendor and luxury.

The more homelike the buildings and rooms are, the less formality and restraint, the better the inmates get along, and the greater the chances appear for their recovery. Quite a number do recover. For the year ending March 1st of this year, there were 38 recoveries, while fully 100 were absent on leave, visiting their old homes. More than 60 per cent. of the entire number of inmates were on parole and allowed to go about the farm without an attendant. Less than one per cent. were under restraint at any time. The doors are wide open all day, and but few patients are kept on the wards.

Considerable stress is laid by the opponents of this system on the necessity of medical attendance. We go on the broad theory that there is nothing further that medical treatment can do for the diseased mind. All that can be done in the hospitals has been done. The physician is needed only for the ordinary and usual complaints of a similar number of normal people. A physician is appointed for each institution. He visits the same at regular and stated intervals, usually once or twice a week. In an emergency requiring the immediate services of a physician, he can be called by telephone in most asylums, and respond to a call in from fifteen minutes for the nearest to an hour for the farthest. Out of a total of about 2,800, there were 145 deaths for the year ending March 1st. Is the death rate of the state-care institutions any less than this?

So far as I can learn, and so far as my observation goes, the amount of medical treatment which the chronic insane receive at the state-care asylums is limited to an autopsy and such treatment of physical infirmities as is always found in any large body of humanity, whether in or out of an asylum.

There can be, indeed, no question that with occupation for nearly every patient, with almost perfect liberty, open doors, no restraint of any sort, with general dining-room, home

comforts of all kinds, and personal individual attention absolutely essential to the insane, that there is a decided improvement in the mental as well as the physical condition of at least four-fifths of all those who are sent to these asylums. The secret lies in the plain fact that the insane are treated as human beings. The life of a patient in the county asylum is freer and less artificial than in the hospital. He is near to his people if they wish to see him. He has larger liberty and more labor. The simple life and healthful work of the farm induce vigor of muscle and tranquility of mind. The little remnant of intellect that each one has left is busied with the petty cares that each day brings. And thus in comparative serenity and peace the flying years go by, until one day the beautiful angel of death sets the clouded spirit free.

Allow me to add the testimony of one or two well-posted gentlemen who have visited our county asylums and studied the system.

Hon. J. R. Elder, a member of the State Board of Charities of Indiana, said in a paper to this Conference: "On a visit to Wisconsin, I learned how they care for their insane. That was a new development to me, to see one hundred insane people in one building, men and women taken from the poorhouses and state hospitals, in charge of one male and one female superintendent, doing all the work of the house and a large farm, with no doors locked, no resident physician, coming and going as they pleased, contented and as happy as they could be in their condition. Wisconsin has accomplished what other states must do. More than half of the present inmates in our state hospitals could be cared for in this way better for the harmless insane, much better and cheaper for the state."

So great an authority as Hon. F. B. Sanborn of Massachusetts, who has made a full and thorough study of this question, said to this Conference in 1892:

"I make the assertion, and I challenge any one to prove the contrary, that the state of Wisconsin comes at this mo-

ment nearer to the ideal standard of providing for every person the treatment best adapted to his needs than any state in the Union. I have studied this matter for years, have watched and examined the Wisconsin system, and have repeatedly stated (and it has never been disproved) that the insane of Wisconsin are better provided for in all the essentials of treatment than the insane of any other state."

"THE MOUNTAINS WERE IN LABOR AND
BROUGHT FORTH A MOUSE."

BY WALTER S. LOGAN.

There has been for a long time an international mystery in the air. The Atlantic breezes have been whispering in our ears that the dread statesmen who compose the governments of England and the United States were sitting on some fresh political eggs of their own laying, and that, if we would only bide our time and give the incubatory process a chance to do its full work, we should soon see hatched forth a new bird, bearing peace to the nations and prosperity to the world.

We have waited. The chick (what there is of him) has been hatched, and the Salisbury-Olney correspondence on the subject of international arbitration is now open to be read by the plain eyes of common humanity.

Lord Salisbury's proposition is that :

"Her Britannic Majesty and the President of the United States shall each appoint two or more permanent judicial officers for the purposes of this treaty, and on the appearance of any difference between the two Powers which, in the judgment of either of them, cannot be settled by negotiation, each of them shall designate one of the said officers as arbitrator, and the two arbitrators shall hear and determine any matter referred to them in accordance with this treaty.

Before entering on such arbitration the arbitrators shall select an umpire, by whom any question upon which they disagree, whether in-

terlocutory or final, shall be decided. The decision of such umpire upon any interlocutory question shall be binding upon the arbitrators. The determination of the arbitrators, or, if they disagree, the decision of the umpire, shall be the award upon the matters referred.

Complaints made by the nationals of one Power against the officers of the other; all pecuniary claims or groups of claims, amounting to not more than 100,000 pounds, made on either Power by the nationals of the other, whether based upon an alleged right by treaty or agreement or otherwise; all claims for damages or indemnity under the said amount; all questions affecting diplomatic or consular privileges; all alleged rights of fishery, access, navigation or commercial privilege, and all questions referred by special agreement between the two parties shall be referred to arbitration in accordance with this treaty, and the award thereon shall be final.

Any difference in respect to a question of fact or of international law involving the territory, territorial rights, sovereignty or jurisdiction of either Power, or any pecuniary claim or group of claims of any kind involving a sum larger than 100,000 pounds, shall be referred to arbitration under this treaty. But if in any such case, within three months after the award has been reported, either Power protests that such award is erroneous in respect to some issue of fact or some issue of international law, the award shall be reviewed by a court composed of three judges of the Supreme Court of Great Britain and three of the judges of the Supreme Court of the United States, and if the said Court shall determine, after hearing the case, by a majority of not less than five to one, that the said issue has been rightly determined, the award shall stand and be final, but in default of such determination it shall not be valid. If no protest is entered by either Power against the award within the time limited it shall be final.

Any difference which, in the judgment of either Power, materially affects its honor or the integrity of its territory, shall not be referred to arbitration under this treaty except by special agreement.

Any difference whatever, by agreement between the two Powers, may be referred for decision by arbitration, as herein provided, with the stipulation that unless accepted by both Powers, the decision shall not be valid."

Translated into common language, this means that any controversy involving less than \$500,000 in amount—that is, any International Justice Court case—is to be submitted to the tribunal contemplated, provided:

1. That this International Justice of the Peace Court can in fact be constituted; that is, if the English partisan and the United States partisan can agree upon an impartial umpire to sit with them.

2. That neither England nor America thinks its honor is in question; that is, provided neither country has any objection.

The important controversies—that is, all above the dignity of this International Justice of the Peace Court—are to be submitted to this tribunal with the reservation that either side may appeal from its decision to a court still more partisan; and if it succeeds in convincing more than one out of three of its own partisans in the Appellate Court, of the error of the court below, everything done is to be null and void.

The sublimity of the ridiculous is reached in the provision that any other controversy may be submitted to this court *if both parties agree to it, but its decision is to be of no avail unless both parties accept it.*

What step in the direction of the disarmament of the world or towards peace between nations in advance of what has already been done would be taken if Lord Salisbury's proposals were accepted, it is, indeed, hard to see. England and America have full capacity now to submit their differences to arbitration whenever they both agree to do so and they have utilized that capacity often and to good purpose during the present century.

Lord Salisbury's plan does not provide any effectual method by which arbitration can be brought about whenever either party is disinclined to arbitrate. Any controversy which either nation did not wish to submit to arbitration would undoubtedly, in its judgment "materially affect its honor," and we should have arbitration whenever, and only whenever, both parties felt like it, just as we have it now.

Mr. Olney's proposed amendments give the plan a little more much needed dignity but still leave it utterly inadequate to effect any substantial good purpose. The fatal "national honor" clause, though veiled in different language, is still there in all its virulence.

He does, however, insist that when there has been an arbitration, both sides shall be bound by the results.

Most courts, he wisely concludes, are more fitted for school-boy contests than for great national controversies.

Secretary Olney, no more than Lord Salisbury, provides how the impartial umpire or umpires shall be selected if the partisan members of the court cannot agree upon it or them.

Lord Salisbury and Secretary Olney seem to have been playing with the question of international arbitration—a question important enough to be worthy of a more serious effort.

There is only one way in which the disarmament of nations can be effected and that is the same way in which the disarmament of individuals has been effected. Every individual in every civilized community has been obliged to give up some degree of liberty in order that he may have his compensation in a greater degree of security. There can be permanent peace among nations only when every nation is willing to give up some portion of its liberty, or its sovereignty if you please, in order that it may live at peace with all the world and be protected against the murderous assaults of other nations pretending to have grievances against it.

A quarrel is a quarrel and a law suit is a law suit, whoever may be the parties to it, and whether the plaintiff and defendant are individuals, corporations or nations. The experience of the world, and of our Saxon race in particular, has shown that the best tribunal for the settlement of all controversies, is an impartial court before which a bar of partisan advocates can practice and whose judgments must be respected and can be enforced.

The most serious of the numerous defects of the Salisbury-Olney plan are :

1. It provides for a court that is partisan ; that is, a court, the majority of whose members are to be citizens of the nations whose controversy is before it—judges sitting in judgment in their own cause.

2. It does not effectually bind the two nations to submit their controversies to the tribunal to be established. Its

practical effect is only to leave them at liberty to do so if they wish.

3. Lord Salisbury's plan does not, except in a very limited degree at least, make the decision of the tribunal binding upon either nation, and neither plan makes any provision for the enforcement of the judgment.

If we have not yet reached a point in the history of civilization when nations like England and America are willing to yield some tittle of their sovereignty in order to maintain the peace of the world, then we might as well be content with existing methods until we reach that point. Arbitration that is not arbitration, a court that is not a court, only brings judicial methods into contempt.

MASSACRE AT VAN.

BY GRACE M. KIMBALL.

Van's turn came at last. The disturbances were brought about by the worst element from among the revolutionists—scamps from Russia and Bulgaria—men who had no local interests, no families, and no lands or property at stake, but who came as absolute dictators of the destiny of the entire community. The Armenians were too broken-spirited and hopeless to oppose this energetic band of criminals, under the guise of heroes and patriots, and it is hard to say of whom the people stood most in fear, the incensed Turk, on the one hand, or these men, on the other, who insisted, under threats of murder—which were several times carried out—on quartering themselves on the peaceful inhabitants and demanding money and other assistance from them. So great was the terror they inspired that even in the relief work the native helpers were afraid to advise as to who should and who should not receive assistance, lest they incur the animosity of these men. For many months they used every

means to force the young men to join, furnished them with arms brought from Russia and Persia, and dressed in a wild, striking sort of uniform, went back and forth by night, from one rendezvous to another, frequently meeting the Turkish patriot, and thus adding constantly to the smouldering fire of Turkish hatred and fanaticism. During the spring one of these bands met the patrol, was challenged, shots were exchanged, and a Turkish soldier killed. The authorities with difficulty calmed the wrath of the soldiers. Since Bahri Pacha's dismissal the local government, under Nagin Pacha, has honestly and successfully labored to defend the town against outbreaks, and the advent of this lawless band was, therefore, doubly unfortunate and fatal to the interests of the community at large.

When the snows disappeared the revolutionists began, in spite of the warning and advice from the Governor-General, the British Vice-Consul and the American missionaries, to send armed bands against the Kurds, to avenge the wrong done the Armenians in the fall. So the government saw that no compromise was possible and that the city must be cleared of the revolutionists; their haunts were surrounded and searched by the police, but such is the configuration of the town that it was perfectly easy for the rebels to elude their pursuers. Finally the storm broke, at midnight on Sunday, June 14, an encounter took place at the edge of the town between the Turkish patrol and an armed band, the Armenians say, of Kurds smuggling salt; the Turks say of revolutionists. A soldier and the officer in charge were badly wounded. By noon the long-expected outbreak was well under way. In all quarters of the town, where the population was mixed, Turkish and Armenian, and in quarters abutting on Turkish neighborhood, crowds of hundreds of low Turks, Kurds, gypsies, and irregular soldiers and gendarmes arrived with guns and swords and every kind of weapon, and broke loose on the utterly defenceless and unsuspecting people. They swept from house to house, from street to street, from quarter to quarter, killing all whom

they could reach, pillaging the houses of everything, and, in the case of better houses, destroying them by fire. It was, I think, due to the fact of the excessive poverty of the Turks, and especially the soldiers, that the pillaging engaged their attention most largely, and for this reason the killing was not so great as might have been expected from the terrible animosity existing. The greater part of the Armenians were able to save their lives by flight. Probably about 500 were killed, while many were badly wounded. The riot continued for eight consecutive days. When the affray was well begun the revolutionists took up fortified positions, and stood siege by the mob. Twelve or fifteen of these men, well armed, easily withstood all assaults, and inflicted severe loss on their opponents: probably 150 to 200 Moslems were thus killed, and for every Moslem killed the wave of fanatical frenzy rose higher. Soon after midnight of the fifth day, one or two mountain guns reduced these strongholds, and their doughty defenders sought refuge in the compact Armenian quarter, which had been protected by the British Vice-Consul. The government, acting in consultation with the British Consul, offered them the most easy and merciful terms of surrender, and these were urged as the only way to restore confidence and save their co-religionists from further violence and plunder, but the whilom leaders were too much impressed with the desirability of insuring their own lives to listen, and, now that they had precipitated the avalanche of destruction, they, with the arms they had brought with them, left for the mountains and secured personal safety across the Persian frontier. Thanks to Major Williams's herculean efforts, the compact Armenian quarter—something like a mile square—was largely saved, and for days the American mission, protected by the Union Jack, gave refuge to something like 15,000 people.

While all this was taking place in the town, still more dreadful things were going on in the villages far and near. A simultaneous outbreak of lawlessness, massacre, and pillage occurred all over the province, and has not yet subsided.

We can form no estimate of what has happened as yet, save as we hear the terrible tale of those who have come in from the nearer villages. We are using all the resources of the relief department to feed the hungry crowds, and over fifteen thousand receive daily rations of bread or soup, and of this number fully ten thousand are homeless and utterly destitute. Thousands of the townspeople are out in the open, without beds or any protection, and the nights are still cool, for the poor little children especially. Every day brings in fresh crowds, with their pitiful tale of murder, rape, and general misery. And it would seem as if the wave of destruction were not to stop until everything—Armenian, at least—were swept away.

How is this people to live? Many families who were rich are now homeless and penniless. Our efficient and devoted treasurer of the free aid department has lost his pleasant home, and to-day begged a little bread from the bakeries to feed his dear ones. In many villages almost all the male population has been killed. What is to be done with the widows and orphans? The care of the wounded has been a heavy burden. Every day has brought from ten to twenty of these—and such wounds. Men, women and children, shot, shattered, hacked, and fractured! Many wandered for days, hungry and hunted, in the mountains, their wounds in an indescribably filthy condition. Our resources, both for housing and dressing, are taxed to the utmost.

Dr. Reynolds has given a part of the boys' school for the male ward, and the kindergarten serves for the women and children, while light cases are cared for in a school close by. We have a fairly efficient hospital corps. As a true historian of this last page of Armenian history, I cannot fail to throw much blame on the Revolutionary party of the Armenians. As to the blame attaching to the Turks and Kurds I can say nothing. Their savage, brutal, and fanatical character is only too well known. It is only fair to say, however, that the local government has in this affair acted well. This is much in consequence of the extraordinary influence

and adroitness of the British vice-consul, Major Williams, of whose bravery and good judgment too much cannot be said. He was undoubtedly the means of preventing a wholesale massacre that would have swept the place clean of Christians. No sympathy can be great enough for the ignorant people who, and who alone, have suffered such indescribable penalties for the indiscretion of their so-called liberators and defenders.

VACATION HELPS FOR CHILDREN.

A BUNDLE OF LETTERS.

PART I.

LOOKOUT COTTAGE, June 28th, 1894.

MY DEAR COUSIN.—Another hot day, the tenth in succession. I do pity the children in the hot city. I see them, even in my dreams, running about and quarrelling in the dusty streets where I have so often picked my way to greet and help them. I woke this morning to the freshness of a dewy mountain world. My thought traveled to the boys and girls in the tenement-house districts of Bay City; I must do something for them if only with money and at second hand. Can't you help me to help them? I have thought of a plan. Take some of the children of the most crowded parts of Bay City out for summer trips. Down the bay to the salt water, not to the places whose waste of torrid sand is only broken by the wild "flying-horses" and wilder dance hall; but to the Point with its rocks and glens, to the Cove and the Stanley Farm with their quiet woods, to Indian hill with its wide views; you know where. Treat them as a big brother, and give them a good time. Take a vacation yourself from your medical studies and do this for me, for the boys, for all humanity. If you don't, I can't stay here in this loveliness and feel any better than a thief

taking all the plums of Life's giving and leaving the sodden dough for others. Now take this bit of a plan and work it up into a splendid scheme right away.

Your loving cousin,

JANET PIERSON.

P. S. *Particularly specific.*—The money part, I forgot that. Of course, I shall pay you for ridding me of an accusing conscience; you must charge for your time what you would earn at other odd jobs. Also fares for the children, luncheon, etc. This is your first "call" to take charge of a "dispensary" where something much better than your pills and powders is to be dealt out to the most promising of patients, the children, who need only air, sunshine, freedom and kindness. Don't wait to report details to me, but start.

BAY CITY, July 10th, 1894.

MY DEAR JANET.—It is done; that is to say, the beginning is made. I propose to go out with a party of from six to twelve or fifteen boys at a time for a day in the country, and give them a good outing in the open air, and at the same time try to draw them into some lines of nature study, such as drawing leaves and flowers and trees, and then talking about them, and a little geological study,—anything that proves interesting.

I visited a bright little fellow, thirteen years old, and told him that some of the friends around here were interested in giving them an outing, and perhaps a chance to follow out some line of study from nature. We went to Brookdale Park. The first thing we visited of course was the spring of water; then we walked through the park to the river. We talked about the flowers and birds, trees, frogs, tadpoles, etc. Then we went up on the bank and gathered some leaves and flowers, and I began to draw them and suggested they do the same, and they took hold of it with a good deal of interest.

Next time, we took a ramble over Indian Hill; the boys were much interested in the scratched rocks and boulder. I

had two pairs of opera glasses and a microscope, and they were interested in using those; they seemed to have a keen appreciation of the scenery.

Yours faithfully,

ERNEST WOOD.

LOOKOUT COTTAGE, July 12th, 1894.

MY DEAR COUSIN.—This is just the thing; I knew you could do it.

Yours ever,

JANET.

July 18th, 1894.

MY DEAR JANET.—Yes, I will take time for a party each day.

Among most of the real "street-boys" when first approached, I found a good deal of suspicion when I offered a free ride, or promised any other sort of trip in my company. But I agreed with ten or twelve boys to meet me.

The best thing in your generous plan, dear cousin, is that these outings together will impress the boys that at least one person has been working unselfishly for their interests; one who is really a friend to them. Most of them have had no experience with any one of this sort. Each boy has a hard struggle to maintain his own existence in the neighborhood, and usually gets an impression of the world which makes him look on any stranger with suspicion. To have made the children and, through the children, the parents of several crowded tenement-house districts of a city believe that kind words said may really mean kind feelings and kind deeds, and not a blind for some selfish object,—this is a great thing accomplished. Some, however, of the poorest and most forlorn children trusted me from the first. They touched my heart.

I made some inquiries of them, sitting down and entering into a little talk with the older ones. On the steps were two or three cans of old paint and paint skins which they had picked up in the gutter. They had been having a sham battle with the paint skins.

Finally I asked one or two how they would like to have a free ride to Brookdale Park that afternoon. There was a commotion right away. They forgot their marbles and began to swarm around me, exclaiming, "Free ride? Nothing to pay? Yes, we'll go; we'll all go."

I gave them a little lecture, told them they were going to have a good time; all I wanted was to have them do just as I said; I could not have any fighting; any one that was seen fighting could not go the next time.

I told them to go home and wash their faces and feet. At one o'clock they met me at the Millville bridge, and they surprised me. They looked remarkably neat, and only two boys were bare-footed.

On this excursion I am describing, the boys vied with one another to serve me in any way that they could. At the park we played ball and scrambled through the woods until we were all tired and ready for quiet sport. The opera glass and microscope which I took with me afforded great amusement. Many of them had never seen either before. It was interesting to notice the way they used the opera glasses. They would look first through the big end at one of the boys and would shout out at him as if he were away off at a distance; they would look at a boy through the small end and speak softly as if he were near by.

After this had begun to pall a little, I took out my sketch book and began to draw, without saying anything to them. Pretty soon they all gathered around and wanted to know if I had any pencil and paper. I wanted to test them and see if they had real interest, so I told them where they could get them in my valise. Each got a pad and tried hard, taking a great deal of pains and being very persistent. Nearly all the rest of the afternoon there were some of them stretched under the trees trying to draw.

I gave them a little lunch of bananas, with cookies and lemonade, to all of which they did marked justice.

Yours faithfully,

ERNEST WOOD.

LOOKOUT COTTAGE, July 20th, 1894.

MY DEAR ERNEST.—First, what of the educational value of your excursions with the children? Tell me when you have been long enough at it to count results.

Yours thankfully,

JANET PIERSON.

August 1, 1894.

MY DEAR JANET.—A month has passed since our experiment began. In order to keep boys in a receptive mood for these impressions, it is necessary, first of all, that they should enjoy themselves. It has been my first business, therefore, to secure that result. I have tried merely to arouse interest in different things by being interested myself. When I am interested in one subject, and show it plainly, some boys will always follow me and make inquiries, and when devoted to another subject, another set of boys will show the same interest. My thought has been to draw them out along these different lines of inquiry and development, encouraging each boy to show his natural bent, or trying to discover that bent, if possible, when he is not conscious of it. In order to do this, I have to prepare the way by talking in a casual and informal manner about curiosities of nature, about events of history, a little, at least, about *all* the things in nature and in human life that an educated person is familiar with.

We took a long walk to Branton Springs, where there is a soapstone ledge and marks on the rocks where the Indians carved out their pots and kettles; we gathered specimens of talc, etc. The boys took quite an interest in the work, and used their hammers very industriously; those who had not brought any wished they had; we all voted to give the specimens to the Millville Library. It was a very hot day; we stopped at the library and art gallery on the way home and left the rocks.

I have given each of the boys, who did not have any, pencil and paper, and they have made sketches at home.

Some of the boys showed great concern lest anyone should keep a pencil if he had one already. So several were given back to me. Some of the sketches showed marked interest in the subject, if not talent.

In regard to the æsthetic development of the boys, it is an interesting fact to note that the boys seemed at once to show a keen appreciation of natural scenery, but on no occasion do I remember their being impressed with fine homes or residences. It has been hard for me to draw from the boys anything to show that they had a desire to live in such places; possibly it is because these homes are so very different from their own that they are unable to realize that they *are* homes; they almost universally took an interest in fine paintings or statuary.

One of the boys threw himself down in the shade of one of those magnificent oaks on Stanley Farm and said: "I could be contented to stay here all summer." I have added to my out-of-door teaching for my most intelligent class some visits to museums and art galleries. The results are most gratifying; I took the "Observation Club" over the University buildings last week. These boys were clean and orderly and intensely interested in the museum.

At the gymnasium, the boys could hardly be restrained in their desire to see the apparatus. At the library, the boys took keen interest and wanted to stay longer and look at books and pictures. We visited the different halls.

Many questions were asked about college life. They asked how much it would cost to go to college and if the boys studied about all those specimens in the museum, and if they used the gymnasium all they wanted to; if they had fun or had to study very hard, showing that a new train of thought had been set in motion.

Here I had a chance for a little lecture; this time about historical events, the first settlement of our country, the way we are connected with France, England, Spain and other countries. Make your history stories, and nothing can ex-

ceed the eagerness of such boys to listen. I have tried them several times with pictures.

Another educational feature of these trips is the hint the boys get of ways in which to utilize all the resources of nature for their own enjoyment. For instance, one day we went to the river, and just as we got to the shore it began to rain quite hard, and we had to take refuge in an old shed which we found. I got out my drawing tools and set them all to sketching and painting, and told them stories and read to them. Then we bought some clams, and got the people in the house near by to boil them for us, and had a feast. The boys decided they had had one of their best times, although it had rained two or three hours. * * * Many of the boys told me that they only went to school the three months required by law in this state, and worked in some mill or shop the rest of the year. These cannot have had school influences sufficient to make study a habit. It was for this class that I tried especially to make all things about which we talked attractive, so they might get a glimpse of a wider life. Does this answer your question as to the educational element in our venture?

Yours faithfully,

ERNEST.

A NEW BRIAREUS.

"What! More to do?" growls Neighbor Sands;

"I wish I had two pair of hands."

"Good neighbor, no more members crave,

But duly use what hands you have;

Two hands your honest bread to earn;

Two hands dishonest gains to spurn;

Two hands to part a senseless brawl,

Or save a weakling from a fall;

Two hands to slip a stealthy alms

Between a widow's work-worn palms;

Two hands to clear your corn from tares;

Two hands to lift in holy prayers;

Two hands to knock, when toil is past,

At heaven's high gate, nor find it fast."

SARA HAMMOND PALFREY.

PLANS FOR INTERNATIONAL ARBITRATION.

In the discussions with regard to some system of arbitration between the great nations, several different schemes have been put in black-and-white. It will be a convenience to our readers to have all these together, and we reprint the more important of them.

PLAN OF THE NEW YORK STATE BAR ASSOCIATION.

1. The establishment of a permanent International Tribunal, to be known as "The International Court of Arbitration."

2. Such court to be composed of nine members, one each from nine independent states or nations, such representative to be a member of the Supreme or Highest Court of the nation he shall represent, chosen by a majority vote of his associates, because of his high character as a publicist and judge, and his recognized ability and irreproachable integrity. Each judge thus selected to hold office during life, or the will of the court selecting him.

3. The court thus constituted to make its own rules of procedure, to have power to fix its place of sessions, and to change the same from time to time as circumstances and the convenience of litigants may suggest, and to appoint such clerks and attendants as the court may require.

4. Controverted questions arising between any two or more Independent Powers, whether represented in said "International Court of Arbitration" or not, at the option of said Powers, to be submitted by treaty between said Powers to said court, providing only that said treaty shall contain a stipulation to the effect that all parties thereto shall respect and abide by the rules and regulations of said court, and conform to whatever determination it shall make of said controversy.

5. Said court to be open at all times for the filing of cases and counter cases under treaty stipulations by any na_

tion, whether represented in the court or not, and such orderly proceedings in the interim between sessions of the court, in preparation for argument, and submission of the controversy, as may seem necessary, to be taken as the rules of the court provide for and may be agreed upon between the litigants.

6. Independent Powers not represented in said court, but which may have become parties litigant in a controversy before it, and, by treaty stipulation, have agreed to submit to its adjudication, to comply with the rules of the court, and to contribute such stipulated amount to its expenses as may be provided for by its rules, or determined by the court.

PLAN OF THE INTERPARLIAMENTARY PEACE CONGRESS.

(Adopted at Brussels in September, 1895.)

1. The high contracting parties constitute a Permanent Court of International Arbitration to take cognizance of differences which they shall submit to its decision.

In cases in which a difference shall arise between two or more of them, the parties shall decide whether the contest is of a nature to be brought before the Court, under the obligations which they have contracted by treaty.

2. The Court shall sit at . Its seat may be transferred to another place by the decision of a majority of the adhering powers.

The government of the state in which the Court is sitting, guarantees its safety as well as the freedom of its discussions and decisions.

3. Each signatory or adhering government shall name two members of the Court.

Nevertheless, two or more governments may unite in designating two members in common.

The members of the Court shall be appointed for a period of five years, and their powers may be renewed.

4. The support and compensation of the members of the Court shall be defrayed by the state which names them.

The expenses of the Court shall be shared equally by the adhering states.

5. The Court shall elect from its members a president and a vice-president for a period of a year. The president is not eligible for re-election after a period of five years. The vice-president shall take the place of the president in all cases in which the latter is unable to act.

The Court shall appoint its clerk and determine the number of employees which it deems necessary.

The clerk shall reside at the seat of the Court and have charge of its archives.

6. The parties may, by common accord, lay their suit directly before the Court.

7. The Court is invested with jurisdiction by means of a notification given to the clerk, by the parties, of their intention to submit their difference to the Court.

The clerk shall bring the notification at once to the knowledge of the president.

If the parties have not availed themselves of their privilege of bringing this suit directly before the Court, the president shall designate two members who shall constitute a tribunal to act in the first instance.

On the request of one of the parties, the members called to constitute this tribunal shall be designated by the Court itself.

The members named by the states that are parties to the suit shall not be a part of the tribunal.

The members designated to sit cannot refuse to do so.

8. The form of the submission shall be determined by the disputing governments, and, in case they are unable to agree, by the tribunal, or, when there is occasion for it, by the Court.

There may also be formulated a counter case.

9. The judgment shall disclose the reasons on which it is based, and it shall be pronounced within a period of two months after the closure of the discussion. It shall be notified to the parties by the clerk.

10. Each party has the right to interpose an appeal within three months after the notification of the judgment.

The appeal shall be brought before the Court. The members named by the states concerned in the litigation, and those who formed part of the tribunal, cannot sit in the appeal.

The case shall proceed as in the first instance. The judgment of the Court shall be definite. It shall not be attacked by any means whatsoever.

11. The execution of the decisions of the Court is committed to the honor and good faith of the litigating states.

The Court shall make a proper application of the agreements of parties who, in an arbitration, have given it the means of attaching a pacific sanction to its decisions.

12. The nominations prescribed by Article 3 shall be made within six months from the exchange of the ratifications of the convention. They shall be brought by diplomatic channels to the knowledge of the adhering powers.

The Court shall assemble and fully organize one month after the expiration of that period, whatever may be the number of its members. It shall proceed to the election of a president, of a vice-president, and of a clerk, as well as to the formulation of rules for its interior regulation.

13. The contracting parties shall formulate the organic law of the Court. It shall be an integral part of the convention.

14. States which have not taken part in the convention may adhere to it in the ordinary way.

Their adhesion shall be notified to the government of the country in which the Court sits, and by that to the other adhering governments.

LORD SALISBURY TO MR. OLNEY.

HEADS OF A TREATY FOR ARBITRATION IN CERTAIN CASES.

1. Her Britannic Majesty and the President of the United States shall each appoint two or more permanent judicial of-

ficers for the purposes of this treaty; and on the appearance of any difference between the two Powers, which, in the judgment of either of them, can not be settled by negotiation, each of them shall designate one of the said officers as arbitrator; and the two arbitrators shall hear and determine any matter referred to them in accordance with this treaty.

2. Before entering on such arbitration, the arbitrators shall select an umpire, by whom any question upon which they disagree, whether interlocutory or final, shall be decided. The decision of such umpire upon any interlocutory question shall be binding upon the arbitrators. The determination of the arbitrators, or, if they disagree, the decision of the umpire, shall be the award upon the matters referred.

3. Complaints made by the nationals of one Power against the officers of the other; all pecuniary claims or groups of claims, amounting to not more than £100,000, made on either Power by the nationals of the other, whether based on an alleged right by treaty or agreement or otherwise; all claims for damages or indemnity under the said amount; all questions affecting diplomatic or consular privileges; all alleged rights of fishery, access, navigation, or commercial privilege, and all questions referred by special agreement between the two parties, shall be referred to arbitration in accordance with this treaty, and the award thereon shall be final.

4. Any difference in respect to a question of fact, or of international law, involving the territory, territorial rights, sovereignty, or jurisdiction of either Power, or any pecuniary claim or group of claims of any kind, involving a sum larger than £100,000, shall be referred to arbitration under this treaty. But if in any such case, within three months after the award has been reported, either Power protests that such award is erroneous in respect to some issue of fact, or some issue of international law, the award shall be reviewed by a court composed of three of the judges of the Supreme Court of Great Britain and three of the judges of the Supreme Court of the United States; and if the said court shall de-

termine, after hearing the case, by a majority of not less than five to one, that the said issue has been rightly determined, the award shall stand and be final; but in default of such determination it shall not be valid. If no protest is entered by either Power against the award within the time limited, it shall be final.

5. Any difference which, in the judgment of either Power, materially affects its honor or the integrity of its territory, shall not be referred to arbitration under this treaty except by special agreement.

6. Any difference whatever, by agreement between the two Powers, may be referred for decision by arbitration, as herein provided, with the stipulation that, unless accepted by both Powers, the decision shall not be valid.

The time and place of their meeting, and all arrangements for the hearing, and all questions of procedure, shall be decided by the arbitrators or by the umpire, if need be.

[In reply to Lord Salisbury's proposal, Mr. Olney said that while our government assented readily to the first three articles, he would propose, for reasons which he gave, a new fourth article, in place of Lord Salisbury's fourth and fifth.]

4. Arbitration under this treaty shall also be obligatory in respect of all questions now pending or hereafter arising, involving territorial rights, boundaries, sovereignty, or jurisdiction, or any pecuniary claim or group of claims aggregating a sum larger than £100,000, and in respect of all controversies not in this treaty specially described: *Provided, however*, that either the Congress of the United States, on the one hand, or the Parliament of Great Britain, on the other, at any time before the arbitral tribunal shall have convened for the consideration of any particular subject-matter, may by act or resolution declaring such particular subject-matter to involve the national honor or integrity, withdraw the same from the operation of this treaty: *And provided, further*, that if a controversy shall arise when either the Congress of the United States or the Parliament of Great Britain shall not be in session, and such controversy

shall be deemed by Her Britannic Majesty's Government or by that of the United States, acting through the President, to be of such nature that the international honor or integrity may be involved, such difference or controversy shall not be submitted to arbitration under this treaty until the Congress and the Parliament shall have had opportunity to take action thereon.

In the case of controversies provided for by this article, the award shall be final if concurred in by all the arbitrators. If assented to by a majority only, the award shall be final unless one of the parties, within three months from its promulgation, shall protest in writing to the other that the award is erroneous in respect of some issue of fact or of law. In every such case, the award shall be reviewed by a court composed of three of the judges of the Supreme Court of Great Britain and three of the judges of the Supreme Court of the United States, who, before entering upon their duties, shall agree upon three learned and impartial jurists to be added to said court in case they shall be equally divided upon the award to be made. To said court there shall be submitted a record in full of all the proceedings of the original arbitral tribunal, which record, as part thereof, shall include the evidence adduced to such tribunal. Thereupon the said court shall proceed to consider said award upon said record, and may either affirm the same or make such other award as the principles of law applicable to the facts appearing by said record shall warrant and require; and the award so affirmed or so rendered by said court, whether unanimously or by a majority vote, shall be final. If, however, the court shall be equally divided upon the subject of the award to be made, the three jurists agreed upon as hereinbefore provided, shall be added to the said court; and the award of the court so constituted, whether rendered unanimously or by a majority vote, shall be final.

The skeleton plan which Mr. Hale proposed at Washington in 1889 is for an international court of the six great powers.

"The suggestion will come from one of the six great Powers. It will be from a nation which has no large permanent military establishment; that is to say, it will probably come from the United States. This nation, in the most friendly way, will propose to the other great Powers to name each one jurist of world-wide fame who, with the other five, shall form a permanent tribunal of highest dignity. Everything will be done to give this tribunal the honor and respect of the world. As an international court, it will be organized without reference to any special case under discussion. Then it will *exist*. Timidly at first, and with a certain curiosity, two nations will refer to it some international question, not of large importance, which has perplexed their negotiators. The tribunal will hear counsel, and will decide. The decision will be the first in a series which will mark the great victory of the twentieth century. Its simplicity, its dignity, and its good sense will commend it to the world."

INTERNATIONAL LAW.*

I call the rules which civilized nations have agreed shall bind them in their conduct *inter se*, by the Benthamite title, "International Law." I know no better definition of it than that it is the sum of the rules or usages which civilized states have agreed shall be binding upon them in their dealings with one another. Appeals are made to the law of nature and the law of morals, sometimes as if they were the same things, sometimes as if they were different things, sometimes as if they were in themselves international law, and sometimes as if they enshrined immutable principles which were to be deemed to be not only part of international law, but, if I may say so, to have been pre-ordained.

* An address delivered by Lord Chief Justice Russell, of England, before the American Bar Association at Saratoga, August 20, 1896.

What is the law of nature? Bentham says: "Natural right is often employed in a sense opposed to law, as when it is said, for example, that law cannot be opposed to natural right, the word 'right' is employed in a sense superior to law, a right is recognized that attacks law, upsets, and annuls it. In this sense, which is antagonistic to law, the word 'droit' is the greatest enemy of reason and the most terrible destroyer of governments."

It cannot be affirmed that there is a universally accepted standard of morality. Then what is to be the standard? The standard of what nation? The standard of what nation and in what age? Human society is progressive. The Mosaic law enjoined the principle of an eye for an eye, a tooth for a tooth. The Christian law enjoins that we love our enemies and that we do good to those who hate us. But more. Nations, although progressing, let us believe, in the sense which I have indicated, do not progress *pari-passu*. The United States is to-day the only great Power which has not given its adhesion to the principle of the Declaration of Paris of 1856, for the abolition of privateering. The civilized Powers are abreast of one another in the condemnation of the traffic in human beings as an unclean thing—abhorrent to all principles of humanity and morality, and yet they have not yet agreed to declare this offence against the laws of nations. Dr. Whewell has remarked of jural laws in general that they are not (and perhaps it is not desirable that they should be) co-extensive with morality. He says the adjective right belongs to the domain of morality; the substantive right to the domain of law. But while the conception of the moral law or law of nature excludes all idea of dependence on human authority, it is of the essence of municipal law that its rules have been either enacted or in some way recognized as binding by the supreme authority of the state (whatever that authority may be), and so also is it of the essence of international law that its rules have been recognized as binding by the nations constituting the community of civilized mankind. We conclude then that, while

the aim ought to be to raise high its ethical standard, international law, as such, includes only so much of the law of morals or of right reason or of natural law (whatever these phrases may cover) as nations have agreed to regard as international law.

History records no case of a controversy between nations having been settled by abstract appeals to the laws of nature or of morals. I have said that the rules of international law are not to be traced with the comparative distinctness with which municipal law may be ascertained—although even this is not always easy. I would not have it, however, understood that I should to-day advocate the codification of international law. To codify it would be to crystalize it; uncodified it is more flexible and more easily assimilates new rules. While, agreeing, therefore, that indeterminate points should be determined and that we should aim at raising the ethical standard, I do not think we have yet reached the point at which codification is practicable, or if practicable would be a public good. Many usages, by sheer force of contact with European life and habits of thought, are falling into desuetude. The hand of change is at work upon them, and to codify them would be to stop the natural progress of disintegration.

Like all law, in the history of human societies, it begins with usage and custom, and, unlike municipal law, it ends there. The Christian religion has done much to soften and humanize the action of men and of nations, and the papal head of Christendom became, after the disruption of the Roman empire, the interpreter and almost the embodiment of international law. And when, later, with the Reformation movement, the time came when the pope could not command recognition as the religious head of a united Christendom, the necessity of the time quickened men's brains, and there began to emerge a system which gave shape and form to ideas generally received and largely acted on by nations. It is substantially true to say that while to earlier writers is mainly due the formulation of rules relating to a state of

war, to the United States—to its judges, writers, and statesmen—we largely owe the existing rules which relate to a state of peace and which affect the rights and obligations of Powers, which, during a state of war, are themselves at peace. On the other hand, while in Great Britain writers of great distinction on international law are not wanting, and while the judges of her prize courts have done a great work in systematizing and justifying on sound principles the law of capture and prize, it is true to say that British lawyers did not apply themselves, early, or with great zeal, to the consideration of international jurisprudence.

Notwithstanding all this, there is a marked agreement between English and American writers as to the manner in which international law is treated. In England we have an old constitution under which we are accustomed to fixed modes of legislation, and when at last we accept a new development of international law, we look to those methods to give effect to it. On the other hand, your constitution is still so modern that equally fixed habits of looking to legislation have not had time to grow up. Meanwhile, that modern constitution is from time to time assailed by still more modern necessities, and the methods for its amendment are not swift or easy. The structure has not become completely ossified. Hence has arisen what I may call a flexibility of interpretation, applied to the constitution of the United States, for which I know no parallel in English judicature, and which seems to me to exceed the latitude of interpretation observed by your judges in relation to acts of Congress.

The later tendencies of international law are toward a greater humanity. In the field of humane work the United States has taken a prominent part. When the civil war broke out President Lincoln was prompt in entrusting to Professor Franz Lieber the duty of preparing a manual of systematized rules for the conduct of forces in the field—rules aimed at the prevention of those scenes of cruelty and rapine which were formerly a disgrace to humanity. The

manual has, I believe, been utilized by the governments of England, France, and Germany.

But in spite of all this who can say that these times breathe the spirit of peace? There is war in the air. If there be no war there is at best an armed peace. It is no wonder that men—earnest men—enthusiasts if you like, impressed with the evils of war, have dreamt the dream that the millennium of peace might be reached by establishing a universal system of international arbitration. The cry for peace is an old-world cry. It has echoed through all the ages, and arbitration has long been regarded as the hand-maiden of peace. It behooves then all who are friends of peace and advocates of arbitration to recognize the difficulties of the question, to examine and meet these difficulties, and to discriminate between the cases in which friendly arbitration is, and in which it may not be, practically possible.

Pursuing this line of thought, the shortcomings of international law reveal themselves to us and demonstrate the grave difficulties of the position. The analogy between arbitration as to matters in difference between individuals, and in matters in difference between nations, carries us but a short way. It is a cardinal principle of the law of nations that each sovereign power, however politically weak, is internationally equal to any other political Power, however politically strong. There are no rules of international law relating to arbitration, and of the law itself there is no authoritative exponent nor any recognized authority for its enforcement. But there are differences to which, even as between individuals, arbitration is inapplicable—subjects which find their counterpart in the affairs of nations. Men do not arbitrate where character is at stake, nor will any self-respecting nation readily arbitrate on questions touching its national independence or affecting its honor. Again, a nation may agree to arbitrate and then repudiate its agreement. Who is to coerce it? Or, having gone to arbitration, and been worsted, it may decline to be bound by the award.

Who is to compel it? These considerations seem to me to justify two conclusions: The first is, that arbitration will not cover the whole field of international controversy, and the second, that unless and until the great Powers of the world, in league, bind themselves to coerce a recalcitrant member of the family of nations, we have still to face the more than possible disregard by powerful states of the obligations of good faith and of justice. The scheme of such a combination has been advocated, but the signs of its accomplishment are absent. We have, as yet, no league of nations of the Amphictyonic type.

Are we then to conclude that force is still the only power that rules the world? Must we then say that the sphere of arbitration is narrow and contracted? By no means. The sanctions which restrain the wrong-doer—the breaker of public faith—the disturber of the peace of the world, are not weak, and, year by year, they wax stronger. They are the dread of war and the reprobation of mankind. Public opinion is a force which makes itself felt in every corner and cranny of the world, and is most powerful in the communities most civilized. In the public press and in the telegraph it possesses agents by which its power is concentrated, and speedily brought to bear where there is any public wrong to be exposed and reprobated. It year by year gathers strength as general enlightenment extends its empire, and a higher moral attitude is attained by mankind. It has no ships of war upon the seas or armies in the field, and yet great potentates tremble before it and humbly bow to its rule. Again, trade and travel are great pacificators. The more nations know of one another, the more trade relations are established between them, the more good will and mutual interest grow up; and these are powerful agents working for peace. But although I have indicated certain classes of questions on which sovereign powers may be unwilling to arbitrate, I am glad to think that these are not the questions which most commonly lead to war. It is hardly too much to say that arbitration may fitly be applied in the case of by far the

largest number of questions which lead to international differences. Broadly stated, wherever the right in dispute will be determined by the ascertainment of the true facts of the case; and where, the facts being ascertained, the right depends on the application of the proper principles of international law to the given facts—in such cases the matter is one which ought to be arbitrated.

The question next arises what ought to be the constitution of the tribunal of arbitration? Is it to be a tribunal *ad hoc*, or is it to be a permanent international tribunal? It may be enough to say that at this stage the question of the constitution of a permanent tribunal is not ripe for practical discussion, nor will it be until the majority of the great Powers have given in their adhesion to the principle. But whatever may be said for vesting the authority in such Powers to select the arbitrators from time to time, as occasion may arise, I doubt whether in any case a permanent tribunal, the members of which shall be *a priori* designated, is practicable or desirable. In the first place, the character of the best tribunal must largely depend upon the question to be arbitrated. But apart from this, I gravely doubt the wisdom of giving that character of permanence to the personnel of any such tribunal. The interests involved are commonly so enormous, and the forces of national sympathy, pride, and prejudice are so searching, so great and so subtle, that I doubt whether a tribunal, the membership of which had a character of permanence, even if solely composed of men accustomed to exercise the judicial faculty, would long retain general confidence, and I fear it might gradually assume intolerable pretensions. There is danger, too, to be guarded against from another quarter. So long as war remains the sole court wherein to try international quarrels, the risks of failure are so tremendous, and the mere rumor of war so paralyses commercial and industrial life, that pretensions wholly unfounded will rarely be advanced by any nation, and the strenuous efforts of statesmen, whether immediately concerned or not, will be directed to prevent war. But if

there be a standing court of nations, to which any Power may resort, with little cost and no risk, the temptation may be strong to put forward pretentious and unfounded claims, in support of which there may readily be found, in most countries (can we except even Great Britain and the United States?) busybody jingoes only too ready to air their spurious and inflammatory patriotism.

There is one influence which, by the law of nations, may be legitimately exercised by the Powers in the interests of peace—I mean mediation. The plenipotentiaries assembled at the Congress of Paris, 1856, recorded the following admirable sentiments in their twenty-third protocol: “The plenipotentiaries do not hesitate to express, in the names of their governments, the wish that States between which any serious misunderstanding may arise should, before appealing to arms, have recourse as far as circumstances may allow to the good offices of a friendly Power. The plenipotentiaries hope that the governments not represented at the congress will unite in the sentiment which has inspired the wish recorded in the present protocol.” It is to be noted that this provision contemplates not arbitration but mediation, which is a different thing. The mediator is not, at least in the first instance, invested, and does not seek to be invested, with authority to adjudicate upon the matter in difference. He is the friend of both parties. He seeks to bring them together. He avoids a tone of dictation to either. He is careful to avoid, as to each of them, anything which may wound their political dignity or their susceptibilities. If he cannot compose the quarrel, he may at least narrow its area and probably reduce it to more limited dimensions, the result of mutual concessions; and, having narrowed the issues, he may pave the way for a final settlement by a reference to arbitration or by some other method.

This is a power often used, perhaps not so often as it ought to be—and with good results. It is obvious that it requires tact and judgment, and that the task can be undertaken hopefully, only where the mediator possesses great

moral influence, and where he is beyond the suspicion of any motive except desire for peace and the public good.

In dealing with the subject of arbitration I have thought it right to sound a note of caution, but it would, indeed, be a reproach to our nineteen centuries of Christian civilization, if there were now no better method of settling international differences than the cruel and debasing methods of war. May we not hope that the people of these States and the people of the Mother Land—kindred peoples—may, in this matter, set an example of lasting influence to the world? They are blood relations. They are indeed separate and independent peoples, but neither regards the other as a foreign nation. Civilization is not a veneer; it must penetrate to the very heart and core of societies of men. Its true signs are thought for the poor and suffering, chivalrous regard and respect for women, the frank recognition of human brotherhood, irrespective of race or color or nation or religion, the narrowing of the domain of mere force as a governing factor in the world, the love of ordered freedom, abhorrence of what is mean and cruel and vile, ceaseless devotion to the claims of justice. Civilization in that, its true, its highest sense, must make for peace. Who can doubt the influence that America and England possess for insuring the healthy progress and the peace of mankind? But if this influence is to be fully felt they must work together in cordial friendship, each people in its own sphere of action. If they have great power, they have also great responsibility. No cause they espouse can fail; no cause they oppose can triumph. The future is, in large part, theirs. They have the making of history in the times that are to come. The greatest calamity that could befall would be strife which should divide them. Let us pray that this shall never be. Let us pray that they, always self-respecting, each in honor upholding its own flag, safeguarding its own heritage of right and respecting the rights of others, each in its own way fulfilling its high national destiny, shall yet work in harmony for the progress and the peace of the world.

INTELLIGENCE.

THE LEND A HAND CLUBS.

ANNUAL MEETING AT PEACE DALE.

The King's Daughters of Peace Dale and neighborhood held their annual meeting on the fifth of August in the elegant Memorial Hall at Peace Dale. It is six years since the first of these meetings. Eight Clubs were represented, with a delegation from the Central Office of Lend a Hand Clubs.

Peace Dale is named in honor of Mrs. Mary Peace, mother of Roland G. Hazard, in whose honor his children erected this hall. The town is the largest separate town in the large township of South Kingston, R. I., and Peace Dale, Wakefield, Saunderstown, Narragansett Pier, and Matunuck, all in that township, were represented.

Miss Caroline Hazard, president of the Ministering Circle of Peace Dale, welcomed the delegates from all the Circles. She said:

In behalf of the Ministering Circle I welcome you most warmly to our annual conference.

The last time we met there were but six societies represented; this year we have eight, and we have a pleasure we have never had before in welcoming a representative of distant Clubs associated with us in spirit, from whose report we are sure to derive inspiration.

This is our fifth annual meeting, though it is the sixth year since we began to meet in conference. Last year, on the first Wednesday in August, one of our number, the president of the Silent Circle, was called to go up higher, and the conference was adjourned. You all knew her—and to know her was to love her. What advance in the Heavenly Kingdom may she not have made in this year! Another of our members, for many years the vice-president of the Ministering Circle, has left us, after teaching us lessons of fortitude and courage, none who saw her can forget.

And while these holy ones have gone to the Heavenly Kingdom, it is God's Kingdom on earth we are left in, God's Kingdom here we are to work in.

Jesus often spoke of the Kingdom of Heaven. It was like the rich man who made a marriage for his son, and to it were gathered people from the highways and hedges. The questioning Scribe was told he was not far from the Kingdom; and again we are bidden, not to look here or there, for "behold, the Kingdom of God is within you." It was the Kingdom Jesus came to proclaim; "for this cause am I sent," he says. And it is this Kingdom of God which is our great concern in life. We may, and do, express our beliefs in different words; the form of our devotions may vary; but we are all subjects of the Kingdom of God, which includes all who desire to live in faith and hope and love. To serve the better, we band ourselves together, and meet to talk over the affairs of the Kingdom. For is not the Kingdom advanced if a soul is comforted and made stronger,—if the needs of a brother are supplied,—if hope and love can flow out to our fellows?

All kingdoms have their passports which they issue to their subjects, and the Kingdom of God which we pray for has its own, Faith, Hope, and Love. Faith, the looking upward; Hope, the looking forward; and Love, unselfish service. Our honored guest of to-day has put the watch-words of the Kingdom into the words we all know, and will repeat together:

Look up and not down,
Look forward and not back,
Look out and not in,
Lend a hand.

The following reports were then submitted :

WAKEFIELD.

The Whatsoever Circle was organized by Miss Jennie H. Robinson. Text.—Whatsoever thy hand findeth to do, do it with all thy might. Ec. IX. 10.

Motto :

Help whomever, whenever you can,
For man forever needs help from man.
Let never a day die in the West
That you have not comforted some sad breast.

Miss Fannie G. Kenyon has been leader for the past two years. At present we have thirty-three names on our roll, but only eighteen are what we call active members, the rest being absent members, not paying dues or doing any work. When one is not heard from in a year we drop the name from the roll, although we believe that once a King's Daughter, always one, and we hope that they are still doing the King's work if not connected with any Circle.

Notwithstanding the zeal and faithfulness with which our present leader has worked, we all feel that no one could inspire us to labor and continued faithfulness like our dear friend and former leader, Miss Robinson. Her very presence and face proved a benediction to all who were present. Could she have been spared to have carried on her work, so well begun, I feel sure that our record would have been better.

We have had nineteen meetings with an average attendance of seven members. During the past year we have given away two hundred new garments and seventy-five half-worn ones, and seventeen hats. These included four complete baby wardrobes, and a box sent at Christmas to

Atlanta, Ga., to a home for colored children, with aprons, stockings, quilts, and a quantity of new toys. The rest of the clothing, being given in the town, we sent to the New York Bible and Fruit Mission, a charity in which Miss Robinson was much interested. We have also made clothes where the cloth was furnished by the mother, and have given away cloth to be made up.

At Christmas we sent a number of dolls, toys, cards, and booklets to the New York Mission. We buy flowers for the funerals of our departed members, and have helped pay for a memorial window to our faithful vice-president, Miss Nancy Murdoch. Last month we sent five dollars to the Fresh Air Fund of the New York Tenement House Chapter.

In behalf of Whatsoever Circle I most sincerely thank the Ministering Circle for their kindness and cordiality in giving us the pleasure and privilege of meeting with them in conference this afternoon.

SAUNDERSTOWN.

The Loyal Circle was formed in 1894. The first meetings were held on Sunday afternoons in a shady spot, and were wholly religious. As the cool weather came on the meetings were held at the home of the leader every fortnight. The girls came from school and sewed on work for various good causes, and then a tea was served. In the evening the boys came, and the programme was varied. Sometimes it was musical, sometimes scientific, sometimes social, always varied and as bright as could be. In May, 1895, a "daisy" festival was held; the big dining room of the hotel was decorated with daisies, and there were daisy tableaux, songs, and recitations. Five dollars of the proceeds were given toward the pastor's salary. The girls dressed exquisitely a very handsome doll, and the boys made a fine doll house for a little girl whose knee had been injured. She was delighted, and took the doll to the hospital with her, for an operation was necessary. The dear child did not survive, but so great sympathy was aroused that all

her funeral expenses were paid and beautiful flowers put around her by the King's Daughters and their friends.

In the summer of 1895 the young people endeavored to earn each a dollar for the pastor's salary. Their efforts resulted in the sum of nearly \$25.00. Petticoats for the Rhode Island nursery, comforters for home missionaries, aprons for a sale, scrap-books for the hospital, a Christmas dinner and tree for a poor family, a music box for a dear blind friend, are among the services the King's Daughters have been happy to render. In May of 1896 another festival was held. A group of dainty maidens executed a flag drill, and there were other interesting exercises. And from the proceeds of this, a handsome oak chair was bought to complete the pulpit furniture of the church.

At present there are no meetings, as through the summer all, both old and young, are extremely busy with the many summer visitors who frequent these shores. Doubtless in autumn the meetings will be resumed.

PEACE DALE.

During the past year the Silent Circle has met regularly, and the meetings in general have been well attended. Fifteen meetings have been held, with an average attendance of seven.

The officers of our Circle are president, vice-president, secretary, and treasurer. In addition to these we also have five committees.

The Membership Committee, the Work Committee, and Home Mission Committee, which plan the work for the society and distribute what is wanted among the needy; the Invalid Committee also visit and care for the sick; and the Flower Committee and Social Committee which take charge of our entertainments and socials.

The society has no particular line of work, but its aim is to help whenever and wherever it is possible.

Last September the Silent Circle, in connection with the Ministering Circle, purchased a memorial chair to the mem-

ory of our former president, Mrs. Hazard. This chair has been in constant use, and is much appreciated.

The Circle has had fewer calls for assistance this past year, and it has not been necessary to do as much sewing as usual.

In December, groceries were sent to one invalid and some absorbent cotton to another.

Our main work this year has been in the hands of the Home Mission Committee, who have conducted a meeting at the town asylum once a month. The service consists of prayer, scripture reading, and singing.

The inmates of the asylum seem to enjoy the meetings very much; three of the society who go to take part usually take flowers to distribute.

At Christmas time last year a box of useful presents, handkerchiefs and mufflers for the men and women, books and toys for the children, were sent to the inmates.

In December some boys' clothing was given to the Circle for distribution. It consisted of several boys' suits, overcoats, jackets, hats, and shoes. As no immediate use could be made of them, some of the articles were given to the Ministering Circle.

Since the first meeting in June, the Circle has been sending flowers to the flower mission in Providence, and this will be kept up as long as possible.

Not long ago we had a call for help from the Good Will Homes for boys in Maine. The boys at these homes needed blouse waists, and up to this time we have been working on them.

Last February, at the time of the Armenian troubles, a St. Valentine's tea and sale was held in the King's Daughters' rooms on the afternoon of St. Valentine's Day.

This was in the hands of the Social Committee. The front room was prettily decorated with flowers, and tea and cake were served at a temptingly arranged table. One room was especially devoted to valentines, many of which had been made by members of the society.

The entertainment proved a very enjoyable and successful occasion, the sum of twenty-eight dollars and sixty-eight cents (\$28.68) being cleared.

This sum was afterwards made up to forty dollars (\$40) by friends of the Circle, and sent by the president for the relief of the Armenians.

As usual the Silent Circle has taken care of the decoration of the church with flowers. This is the especial duty of the Flower Committee. They arrange that each member shall furnish flowers for at least one Sunday through the warm weather.

One social has been given by the society this year. This was a Hallow E'en party. About sixty were present. Games and tricks of fortune were played. Cake and lemonade and candy were served, and a pleasant evening was spent.

The Silent Circle was invited to attend and take part in a memorial meeting in memory of Miss I. F. Dixon, held by the Ministering Circle on May 13th, 1896. A number were present.

There are now thirty-eight members. No new ones have been added to the society, but we hope to be able to do more as we go on. The watchword of our society is "In His Name," and the motto, "I am purposed that my mouth shall not transgress." Ps. 7: 3.

WAKEFIELD.

The "Faithful Circle" of King's Daughters reports for two years. It has twenty-two members, and held each year twenty-two meetings, with an average attendance of ten persons. The first work in 1895 was an entertainment, when \$50 were cleared and \$15 went towards the rent of the New York Tenement House Chapter in New York city. We sent them also 52 new and 73 half-worn garments, books, toys, and dressed dolls.

At Christmas we provided clothing, toys, and provisions or a destitute family of nine in our town. Through the

Silver Cross magazine we became interested in the Seaman's Association in New York city, and sent them reading matter and six comfort bags, each containing needles, thread, buttons, pins, soap, prayer book, and hymnal. Twenty-five cents in provisions were brought weekly to an aged woman, a native who said, "Tell them King gals I'm very much obliged."

Two cake sales were held and \$10 cleared. In summer, flowers were sent weekly to New York, and a few articles contributed to a sale for the benefit of Rest Cottage, Saundertown.

In 1896 we distributed at Christmas time 195 old and 27 new garments, books, toys, provisions, nine dressed dolls, mittens, and shoes.

Pillow-cases and flannel night-gowns were made for St. Mary's Orphanage, Providence; some babies' clothes made for the Tenement House Chapter, New York; three new pictures were bought for the room at Rest Cottage, \$10 sent to a woman in a hospital, \$10 to the Tribune Fresh Air Fund, and \$4.25 given in provisions to the old friend, the aged woman.

PEACE DALE.

The Ministering Circle reports ten meetings since the annual meeting in October, 1895. The meetings are held the first Wednesday in the month, from three to five o'clock, afternoon tea being served the last half hour. The society now has 76 members. There has been an average attendance of 34 members at each meeting, at which 49 garments have been made, besides repairing and work for families who needed help, also sufficient rags sewn to make seven rugs (about two yards in length), three of which were given to the Rest Cottage and four to the Rescue Mission for young girls in New York.

We have distributed 178 articles of clothing and four suits of clothes in the neighborhood. In January a box, containing 75 half-worn garments, was sent to Mount Pleasant,

Charleston, a home for colored children, and in March, a box containing 180 garments was sent to Mrs. Gasperé for distribution in the Italian colony in Providence. We have given \$13.50 to aid persons in sickness, \$5.00 paid for rent for one month, \$3.75 paid for shoes for children, and \$10 sent to the Mallalieu Seminary or Mission in Alabama; this sum pays the expenses of a child for one year. The sick have been visited and help given in night nursing. The articles from the sick room outfit have been in frequent use and proved a great comfort, the memorial table and wheeled chair especially so, having been in constant use since their addition to the outfit. The Literature Committee have distributed a large number of books and magazines, principally in the outlying districts. The weekly dusting of the church is in the charge of the Circle, but instead of doing it individually as heretofore, a small subscription is made and a man employed to do it regularly.

PEACE DALE.

Little Deeds report: We have not been able to do much in the past two years as our leader has been away most of the time. We have sent flowers to Miss Carrie Lowrie Mission in New York a few times, also twelve work bags, twelve pin balls, twelve needle books; twenty cents to help build a chapel for some poor children in Trenton, ten cents to a missionary in India, ten cents to the Hampton Colored School, and one dollar to Mr. Moody's school for poor boys and girls.

We have sent ten thousand old stamps to a Canadian blind priest, also to a lady in Providence seven hundred and sixteen stamps.

We also had much pleasure in sending to some poor children in New York twelve dressed dolls, fourteen dresses and skirts, one pair of mittens, and ten magazines to Rest Cottage.

This report is for three years.

A new Club, to be called the Cheerful Circle, consisting of about twenty young ladies of Peace Dale, presented itself for recognition. Dr. Hale, at their request, gave them their motto, "That my joy may remain with you." This Circle has adopted an admirable rule, by which each member, as the day begins, tries to give some happiness or good cheer to some other person. Dr. Hale addressed the Circle, offering the silver cross to each of them as he pronounced the words of recognition.

The nine Clubs represent a membership of perhaps two hundred and fifty persons of all ages, ranging from the little girls in the "Kindly Deeds," up to the mature mothers of families, who find time for the King's work in the large opportunities of public spirit.

Mrs. Whitman, the general secretary of Ten Times One, described, in a short speech, some of the enterprises of the united society.

Dr. Hale, as president of that society, spoke particularly of adult Clubs, of men as well as women, and gave some illustrations of what such Clubs have done.

The exercises closed by the singing of the Rhode Island Club Song, and a hymn, written for the occasion by Miss Hazard.

SCHOOL GARDENS.

The Massachusetts Horticultural Society, in its endeavors to stimulate a love for and a knowledge of flowers among children, has been successful to a marked degree. In November, 1895, a most satisfactory exhibit of Children's Herbariums was held in Boston and prizes were awarded. Window gardening also has been encouraged, and some of the plants presented by the children have shown excellent care and study on the part of their owners.

There have been established gardens in two of the yards

of the public schools of Boston which have interested the pupils greatly, and early in the season of 1895 a successful attempt to introduce school garden work into the Swan School of Medford, a suburb of Boston, was made.

The special aim of the School Garden and Herbarium Committee is to attract the children to the study of native plants, and pains are taken to interest both pupils and teachers in making a garden of wild plants. Their frequent visits to the woods to obtain roots showed their love of the work. The plan of using wild flowers alone, however, proved impracticable, owing to the size of the garden, and some cultivated plants were introduced to ornament the grounds and furnish ready working material.

The result has been more than gratifying, and while the native plants have not been neglected, the cultivated flowers have been the means of enabling some of the children during the summer vacation season to contribute something toward the pleasure of invalids in the hospitals by sending flowers from the Swan School garden to the mission twice a week. Thus they not only received pleasure themselves and gave pleasure to others, but were unconsciously instructed in humane principles.

Nearly all the planting, except that of the trees, was done by the children under the guidance of their teachers.

In addition to the native flowering plants, 150 gladiolas bulbs, 100 tuberose bulbs, 125 pansy plants, 25 cannas, and 50 plants each of sweet-williams, hardy carnations, verbenas, and daisies were planted. Cryptogamous plants were represented by 28 species of hardy native ferns.

The expenses of the garden have been met from appropriations by the School Garden Committee, and generous contributions from friends interested in seeing the experiment of school garden work tried in Medford.

The educational value of such work is beyond question, and in some European countries is considered of sufficient importance to justify legal enactments establishing and providing for it as a necessary part of a school equipment.

The garden of the George Putnam School in Roxbury has been established five years, and consequently it is farther advanced. In this garden are a few cultivated plants. They have not been named, but each native wild plant is properly tagged. The plants are not arranged in ornamental beds but more in lines, so as to make it easier for the fifty-six children to study and examine them. Various classes in the school during the autumn studied composite flowers and the distribution of seeds, by means of the material obtained in the school garden and by visiting it.

The pupils of the first class have studied fifteen species of ferns by means of pressed specimens, specimens brought in for the lessons, lantern slides of three kinds,—first, of the reproductive organs; second, of pressed specimens; third, of growing clumps in their native habitats,—and lastly, by observing all the specimens growing in the school garden. They have studied them about six weeks, have drawn and studied all the minute parts, spores, sporangia, indusia, sori, pinnules, pinnae, rachis, stipe, general shapes, textures, and relative position of parts. Most of the drawing has been done on the board, off-hand, on call. Every pupil made a sheet of drawings of such characteristic parts as he chose; some of the drawings were colored, and the best were put on exhibition at the Mechanic's Fair. Every pupil at the end of his study wrote a composition on ferns.

Not only do these gardens beautify school grounds and make the schools more attractive to the children, but they serve the purpose of supplying, close at hand, material for nature study of a diversified character. The plants and flowers attract a variety of birds and insects, so that the children, under the guidance of an intelligent teacher, may receive object lessons in natural history that they can get in no other way without great difficulty.

DRUNKENNESS IN BRITTANY.—An article in *The Figaro*, Paris, demands prohibition for the Bretagne. Some twenty years ago a drunkard was a rarity among the Bretons, and

the children would point their fingers in scorn at him. To-day everybody gets drunk, young and old, women and men. The evil is of all the greater importance to France, as Brittany furnishes eighty per cent. of the seamen in the French navy. What is the good of all advice against drunken habits, if the saloons increase continually in number? The evil is traced to the decline of the vineyards, owing to the ravages of the phylloxera. Dram-drinking has increased as wine became more scarce and expensive.

CHURCH WORK.—At St. Michael's Church, New York, the Chapter of the Church Association is actively at work. It meets monthly, and frequently listens to some outsider who has come to speak of social needs in some certain field. Addresses on such burning questions as the condition of the bake-shops, single tax, equal suffrage, prison reform, tenement house reform, the sweating system, and others were given last year. So much for the educational side, as a result of which comes the action of the Chapter. There are three standing committees. The Tenement House Committee looks into the condition of all tenement houses within the parish limits. One result brought about has been that of compelling several landlords to improve the conditions of the cellars in which the janitors live or else to give the janitors other quarters. The head of this committee is a lawyer, and its most active members young women who visit from house to house. The Committee on Labor Organizations holds itself in readiness to work for the amicable settlement of any disputes between capital and labor arising in the parish. Its chairman is a member of the Bricklayers' Union, and keeps the Chapter informed about various unions, prices of labor, hours of work, and things kindred. In the recent case of the clothing cutters' strike, involving the lower east side of New York, a mass meeting was held in St. Michael's Church, presided over by Bishop Potter. Members of the unions involved were in-

vited to speak ; and in this way public attention was called to the fact that the employers had refused to consent to arbitration. The third committee is that on "sweat shops." This committee endeavors to get dealers not to sell, and consumers not to buy, any goods made through the "sweating system," and in this way to deal a "knock-down" blow to that iniquity.

In addition to the work of these committees, other work is done to better the possibilities for honest and virtuous lives of young girls, and to provide wholesome amusements and places of amusement for all the young people. Anything to improve the conditions of the working people comes under the head of "Advancement of the Interest of Labor."

BOSTON'S ADVISORY BOARD.—A board of twenty members has been selected by Mayor Quincy of Boston to advise and assist in carrying out needed reforms in the institutions of charity and relief and of prisons and reformatories belonging to the city. This board is composed of six women, six business men, four physicians, two lawyers, one clergyman, and one employee of a charitable organization. Such a board will not have legal power, but it will accomplish much in directing public opinion against any abuses that may come to its knowledge.

FREE MILK FOR BABIES.—For four years Mr. Nathan Strauss of New York city has distributed free sterilized milk to the sick babies of the poor. The percentage of fatal illness has grown smaller in New York since this charity began, and even Brooklyn, with better advantages for health, has a larger death-rate of infants than New York city. The physicians have given Mr. Strauss credit for this great change. This summer Mr. Strauss is providing for Brooklyn babies 1,000 bottles daily of sterilized milk, and it is believed that the mortality will be lessened to a great degree.

CONFERENCES OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.—The following conferences have been announced for the coming year :

National (special meeting).—At New Orleans, January or March, 1897.

National (twenty-fourth annual conference).—At Toronto, July, 1897.

Indiana.—Richmond, November 11-13, 1896.

Ohio.—At Delaware, October, 1896.

Pennsylvania.—At Pittsburg, October 20-22, 1896.

Illinois.—At Springfield, November, 1896.

Minnesota.—At Red Wing, November 17-19, 1896.

Michigan.—December, 1896.

New York.—July, 1897.

BOYS' BRIGADES.—Representatives of the Society of Friends have issued a leaflet calling attention to the attitude of the church in regard to war and to the evils of training boys in military drill and tactics.

“With the inculcation of prompt obedience to superiors, is there not fostered a love of arbitrary power in the boys who command? Is not an admiration for martial display begotten by the parade and the trappings which are part of the outfit of the brigade? Do these not minister to the pride and vanity of human nature, which so early assert themselves, and, viewed from the Christian standpoint, need no stimulus? Will not the precision and efficiency with which large numbers move under the control of one or more leading minds, give an undue estimate as to the value or necessity for military service in the administration of civil government? And is not the general tendency of such training as is derived through the Boys' Brigade, to lead away from the Gospel view of the church, its rightful service, the nature of that conflict with sin and error to which it is indeed called, and the method by which it is to be carried on?”

MINNESOTA STATE CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.—The fifth Minnesota State Conference of Charities and Correction will be held in Red Wing, November 17-19, 1896. The conference has grown in interest and usefulness from year to year. The first three meetings were held in St. Paul, Minneapolis, and Fairbault.

The citizens of Red Wing are glad to welcome the conference there and will use every effort to aid the committee in their work. The Commercial Club offers the use of the new club house for sectional meetings and social purposes.

One session of the conference will be held at the state training school, and full opportunity will be given to see the workings of that excellent institution.

It is expected that President Alexander Johnson of the National Conference of Charities and Correction will be present, with other eminent charitable workers from abroad. Charitable institutions and societies and county boards of commissioners are urged to appoint their delegates early. A very full representation is hoped for.

MANASSAS INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL.

The Manassas Industrial School, for which Jennie Dean, aided by Dr. Edw. Everett Hale, Miss Emily Howland, and others in New York and New England, have labored so hard to establish, closed its second year May 27th. It may be interesting to note here the first money paid on the land was collected by Jennie Dean in Marion, Mass., in the summer of 1891, while employed as a cook in a boarding house. She cooked all day, and in the evening talked of the needs and desires of the black people at her home for an industrial school, resulting in the generous sum of \$160 collected in the churches in and around Marion. This money was sent to Miss Jane E. Thompson in Washington to be placed in a bank for the school, which then existed only in Jennie Dean's heart, and has since so successfully materialized in the pres-

ent Manassas Industrial School. Miss Dean has been in Tarrytown, N. Y., employed for the summer by Mrs. Frances Hackley, who recently sent a check of five hundred dollars to Mr. Henry E. Baker, treasurer of the school.

The school may be regarded as now only in the embryo state, the industrial features being not yet developed to a marked and finished extent. The public have been generous in their responses to the appeals for this school, but it takes much money to pay for a farm of one hundred acres, erect buildings, furnish food, household goods, and teachers for one hundred pupils. The manual training lessons have so far been given in the first floor rooms of the main building, much needed as school rooms only. But one shop is now in course of erection, and teachers and pupils are alike delighted with the prospect of the Bailey building being used exclusively for the trades. This building is given by Mr. L. C. Bailey, a wealthy colored man of Washington, and is to contain four shops when equipped: carpentering, shoe-making, dress-making, and tailoring, with necessary appliances. Besides working in these trades, the cooking, house-keeping, farming, care of stock and poultry, are carried on by the pupils under the teachers' direction. The cooking is specially well taught by Miss Mary E. Vernon. Pupils of either sex learn any trades they desire, the boys learning cooking and sewing and the girls carpentering, tailoring, and gardening. The laundry work is under the care of the matron, Mrs. Poindexter, who hopes in our next building to have a scientific laundry, and fine work from the town will be taken in to add to the revenues of the school. This building is already in prospect from Mr. James Dorum, a colored merchant of Warrenton, Va., and will be named the Dorum building.

The pupils and teachers last year built a small barn complete, wood-work, roofing, and painting. This year they have aided in building the Bailey building, and have graded the ground and laid walks, and planted trees around the main building, Howland Hall. This contains twenty-four

dormitories, three recitation rooms, a reading room, with dining room and kitchen in the basement. The building is roomy, with wide halls, plenty of doors and windows, and is heated by three furnaces and a magnificent kitchen range. The range does the cooking for the school, and cost \$200. It was the gift of the friends in Alexandria, who were very proud of sending it to their towns-woman, Miss Vernon, the directress of cooking.

All of the teachers do work in the academic departments, and it is the aim of the teachers to devote equal time to this and the industrial work. There are two drills for physical training—the military drill for the boys, and “a physical culture” drill for the girls, which make pleasing features of the school.

There have been more than one hundred pupils enrolled during the year, eighty-seven being actually on the roll for closing. There are six teachers,—Miss M. E. Vernon, cooking; Mrs. Clemens, sewing; Mr. Jefferson Thomas, carpentering; and Miss Williams, Mr. B. W. Tyrrell, and the principal, Dr. E. P. Clemens, who aid in all the manual work as well as the class-room studies.

On the whole the prospect is good for a more successful and telling third year. All who are connected with the school, and all who have worked for it or contributed to it, are to be congratulated on the result.

HOME FOR CRIPPLED CHILDREN.—The history of the work of the first year of the New England Peabody Home for Crippled Children is one of interest. The object is to provide a home and educate crippled children to care for themselves. The house at Weston, Mass., in the midst of the most healthful country surroundings, with good-sized rooms and plenty of sunlight and fresh air, has proved well adapted to its purpose.

There is little about the place to suggest institutional life. Everything is homelike. Pictures for children are hung on

the walls, and there are well filled cases of children's books. There are plenty of playthings and dolls to make the little cripples' lives as bright and happy as possible.

Several rooms have been furnished in a simple and tasteful manner, and are known by the names of the friends who have given the furniture, as the Shaw, the Richards, and the Eastman rooms.

The home was fortunate in the outset in obtaining the services of an excellent matron,—a kindly, efficient, and attentive woman. Help has come during the year from many friends in the form of supplies—fruit, clothing for the children, and various other gifts—all much needed and thoroughly appreciated.

Christmas was a glad day in the home. There was a tree well furnished with gifts, and many tokens of the kind thought of those whose hearts went out to the little ones.

There has been no sickness in the household, and the improved condition of the inmates from week to week has shown the results of good care, wholesome food, and a regular life. During a part of the time there have been lessons under the superintendence of a competent kindergarten teacher.

Every day has emphasized the demand for such a home as this. It is the only chartered home in Massachusetts devoted exclusively to the needs of crippled children, and merits the fullest recognition. Its chief need at present is to be more widely known.

There have been many applicants for places. Twelve have been accepted, but of this number three were placed there temporarily, and were afterwards returned to their homes. The expense of attendance is much greater than in the case of sound and healthy children, and the home is in need of funds, not only for the meeting of current expenses, but for the enlargement of work.

STATISTICS OF IMMIGRATION.—Immigration statistics which have been compiled on Ellis Island for the year ending July

1, show an increase of 72,781 in immigration over that of the year 1894-95. During the year just ended, 263,709 immigrants were landed at this port, against 190,928 brought the year before.

Commissioner Senner, in his report, divides the steerage arrivals into three classes,—those who had been in this country before, those who came to join members of their immediate families, and plain immigrants. The latter class numbered 118,633. There were 95,269 who came to join their families, and 48,804 who had been here before. According to the compilation, the Italian colony in America was swelled during the year by the accession of 66,445 new-comers. Of these 31,961 came as discoverers of America; to 14,236 it was an old story, and the remaining 20,248 came to join their families.

After Italy, Austro-Hungary sent the largest number of immigrants to this country during the period named, the total number being 52,085. Russia came next with 39,859; the United Kingdom sent 38,226; Germany, 24,230; Sweden and Norway, 22,978; Turkey and Greece, 6,249. Of the 66,445 who arrived from Italy, 30,728 could neither read nor write. In sharp contrast are the figures which show that out of a total of 24,230 immigrants from Germany, there were only 410 illiterates.

The total amount of money brought by immigrants during the year was \$3,534,399. Immigrants from Spain had the highest average per capita, the average being \$71.62. Hungary was the lowest, with \$5.89. Of the 2,624 immigrants who were barred and sent back, 1,756 were excluded under the provisions of the alien contract labor law, and 756 were refused admission on the ground that they were paupers, and likely to become public charges. There were 249 appeals taken from the decision of the commissioner, and 102 immigrants who had been barred were admitted under bond.

The Italians who were sent back numbered 1,368. There were 567 Austrians deported, 401 Russians, 109 Germans, and 20 Swedes and Norwegians.

WOMEN SCHOOL INSPECTORS IN ENGLAND.—Two women school inspectors have been appointed in London—Miss Rosalie Munday and Miss Willis. They receive at beginning a yearly salary of about \$700, which is raised \$50 yearly until the maximum sum of \$1,500 is reached. Besides this, they are allowed travelling expenses and \$3.00 a day when away from home on duty. These are the first two to receive such an appointment, although pressure has been brought to bear since 1888 for such appointments. The ladies will work in London districts and will be entrusted with the examinations of girls' schools, with a special care of the industrial training. It is also hoped that they will be given certain duties in the inspection of boys' schools, particularly such as relate to the sanitary conditions.

REV. JOHN TUNIS.

As this sheet passes the press the death of Rev. John Tunis, our coadjutor in the conduct of this journal, is announced to us. Our readers will share with us in regret for the loss of the counsels of one for whom we had hoped a longer life.

Mr. Tunis entered on the work of his profession with consecrated zeal, and has endeared himself to all who knew him well. He saw, what all clergymen, alas! do not see, that the Christian ministry means sympathy with all sorts and conditions of men, and loving care of all whom one can help. To such sympathy and care Mr. Tunis had devoted his life—not unsuccessfully. At the time of his death he was in the ministry of the Episcopal Church at Millbrook, Dutchess Co., New York.

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The Atlantic Monthly for September will contain two important articles bearing on the political campaign—one on "The Election of the President" by the historian, John B. McMaster, and the other a very striking paper on "The Problem of the West," by Professor Frederick J. Turner of Wisconsin. He traces the apparent Eastern and Western sectionalism and maintains that the true American is the man of the Middle West. The economic reasons for a divergence of opinion, on the currency question for instance, are so clearly indicated that the article is particularly illuminating as a study of opinion as shown in the present campaign.

Three Hundred Summer Schools.

Three hundred and odd summer schools! The Bureau of Education is the authority; and a really formidable array of circulars, programs, and curricula which have reached the writer would furnish conviction to any who needed visible support for the backbone of these statistics. This new method of occupying and edifying one's self in the vacation months is very new—a growth of the past ten years—and it has only reached these surprising dimensions in 1896, though Harvard began systematic summer work in 1869. Some of the schools are private ventures, others are run by corporations or universities, some are conducted for gain, others purely in the cause of knowledge. Some give instruction in a particular branch of science or art; some are only for teachers; some are for the general public. This combination of the picnic and the lecture-room has its forerunner in the school founded by Louis Agassiz in Penikese Island in 1873.—From "About the World," in September *Scribner's*

Messrs. Dodd, Mead and Company have just received from Mr. Clifton Johnson the first batch of photographic views of Drumtochty life and character, to be used in the illustrated editions of *Beside the Bonnie Brier Bush* and *The Days of Auld Lang Syne*, now in preparation. These have proved to be much more interesting than was even anticipated. Mr. Johnson's work in the edition of White's *Selborne*, published by the Messrs. Appleton last Christmas, proved him to be no mere photographer, and in the series of pictures which he is now taking he shows fine eclectic and artistic tastes. To be sure, he has fallen upon a most picturesque subject, but it takes the eye of the artist to arrange and combine the points of view.—From "*Chronicle and Comment*" in *THE BOOKMAN*.

Literary Note.

Messrs. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. during the coming school year will issue 18 regular numbers of the *Riverside Literature Series*. The high standard of the numbers already brought out will be fully sustained by the masterpieces which will be added in the coming year.

The following numbers will be published in September and October; *Tennyson's Coming of Arthur and Other Idylls of the King* [No. 99.]; *Lowell's* Leaflets, Poems and Prose Passages for Reading and Recitation. Compiled by Josephine E. Hodgdon. With Illustrations and a Biographical sketch [Extra Double No. O.]. Paper, 30 cents, *net*; linen, 40 cents, *net*; *Burke's* Speech on Conciliation with America [No. 100.]; *Pope's Iliad*, containing Selections required for admission to colleges; and *Shakespeare's Macbeth*.

THE PAST AND THE FUTURE OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION.

By unanimous consent Adolph Spiess was the inventor of the method and exercise on which all the programs of gymnastics are based to-day. Few school-masters have left such deep traces in education; few, perhaps, have done so much work as Spiess. He taught, in the public school at Burgdorf, history, geography, singing, drawing, and gymnastics—all at the same session. Poor as he was he would take a three hours' walk every week to the Munchenbuchsee gymnasium, and after two hours of hard exercise he would return, always on foot, tired but not discontented. Burgdorf is a little town in the canton of Bern. Its castle crowns the summit of a hill. One day I visited the town, went up to the castle, and passing through it to a terrace sat down under an old linden, to admire the landscape and gaze on the snow-capped Alps whitening in the distance. An instructor in the high school of Burgdorf who had gone with me on this walk, pointed out to me the windows of a room in the castle where Spiess' first school had been. In that room boys and girls had first gone through those exercises which are now part of the training in all public schools. All there is just as it was in 1833, when Spiess came from Germany, full of hope, happy in being called there as Pestalozzi's successor. Pestalozzi had written in that very castle his book "How Gertrude Teaches Her Children," as well as the "Mothers' Book," no less celebrated in the history of popular pedagogy. Spiess tells us how the gymnastic exercises were carried on in the castle only in winter and when it rained, but at other times how he would lead his boys out into the open air to exercise in the playground which is down in the valley, a grassy meadow protected from the sun on the south by a high cliff.

Spiess' best years were passed in that meadow. The four volumes of this work on gymnastics were thought out and put into practice on that playground. An old horizontal beam on two rusty supports, which is still there, is probably the oldest piece of gymnastic apparatus in Europe.—A. Mosso, in *The Chantauquan* for August.

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THE GRAND RAPIDS CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION was one of the most successful meetings ever held. About five hundred people were in attendance from points outside of Grand Rapids. Section meetings were held from 9 to 11 a. m. and from 2.30 to 4.30 p. m. on each day, and general sessions from 11. a. m. to 1, and 8 to 10 p. m. The average attendance on the section meetings was probably over three hundred, while the attendance on the general sessions was unusually large. The Conference of 1897 will meet at Toronto.

The officers of the Conference and the executive committee are endeavoring to improve the work of the Conference. In order to do so we need both the financial and personal support of the members of the Conference.

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Yours sincerely,

H. H. HART, St. Paul, Minn.,

General Secretary

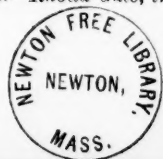
IMMIGRATION EVILS.

It is not professional alarmists, those who set "theory-traps to catch a discovery," demagogic deliverers of oracular thunder and erroneous generalizations, who are taking up the vital question of immigration and calling a halt; it is students of sociologic science and the conditions of stable social equilibrium who toll a warning bell, calling the attention of thoughtful citizens of our great republic to the obstinate impolicy and insensate folly of allowing an undiminishable horde of emigrants to overrun our country, with the probability that, like the waves of the mutinous sea, they will cause sad havoc and destruction.

It is time to talk sense and not sentiment; to dismiss amiable illusions and come down to barefooted and ugly facts; to be influenced neither by sympathies nor by antipathies, but to study this question clearly, dispassionately, and with clarifying and corrective perspicuity; to realize that we are sowing dragons' teeth which will turn upon and rend us.

It is clearly apparent that the great influx of aliens, by direct action upon the labor market, is reversing a great axiom of civil polity, by causing the greatest misery to the greatest number,—lowering the rate of wages, and causing our own citizen workmen to eat the bread of discontent; that such of them as are herded together like cattle, in disregard of ordinary claims of decency and morality, disseminating noxious imported vices, are fungous growths upon our Americanism, vitalizing germs of moral pestilence; and that our priceless possession, "the freeman's vote," suffers injury at the hands of the base contingent from foreign shores, venal voters who are citizens for revenue only, marshalled in platoons to vote by those who have found a job for them, but whose favors have been put out at compound interest.

Decisive, not qualifying measures are needed, more rigid restriction of privilege, more extended and sweeping exclusion of undesirable emigrants, or absolute prohibition may become imperative,—like tracheotomy, a last resort.—*Rhoda Gale, in August LIPPINCOTT'S.*



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